

HISTORY

LATIN CHRISTIANITY;

INCLUDING THAT OF
THE POPES TO THE PONTIFICATE OF NICOLAS V.

By HENRY HART MILMAN, D.D.,
DEAN OF ST. PAUL'S.

IN NINE VOLUMES.—VOL. VII.

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HISTORY

OF

LATIN CHRISTIANITY.

BOOK XI.—*continued.*

CHAPTER VII.

Boniface VIII.

THE Conclave might seem determined to retrieve their former error in placing the devout but unworldly Cœlestine in the chair of St. Peter, by raising to the Pontificate a prelate of the most opposite character. Human nature could hardly offer a stronger contrast than Benedetto Gaetani and Peter Morrone, Boniface VIII. and Cœlestine V. Of all the Roman Pontiffs, Boniface has left the darkest name for craft, arrogance, ambition, even for avarice and cruelty. Against the memory of Boniface were joined in fatal conspiracy, the passions, interests, undying hostilities, the conscientious partisanship, the not ungrounded oppugnancies, not of individual foes alone, but of houses, of factions, of orders, of classes, of professions, it may be said of kingdoms. His own acts laid the foundation of this sempiternal hatred. In his own day his harsh treatment of Cœlestine and the Cœlestinians (afterwards mingled up or confounded with the wide-spread Fraticelli, the extreme and democratic Franciscans) laid up a deep store of aversion in the popular mind. So in the higher orders, his terrible

determination to crush the old and powerful family of the Colonnas, and the stern hand with which he repressed others of the Italian nobles: his resolute Guelfism, his invitation of Charles of Valois into Italy, involved him in the hatefulness of all Charles's tyranny and oppression. This, with his own exile, goaded the Guelf-born Dante into a relentless Ghibelline, and doomed Pope Boniface to an earthly immortality of shame and torment in the Hell of the poet. The quarrel with the King of France, Philip the Fair, brought him during his lifetime into formidable collision with a new power, the strength of which was yet unsuspected in Christendom, that of the lawyers, his fatal foes; and bequeathed him in later times throughout the writings of the French historians, and even divines (French national pride triumphing over the zeal of the Churchman), as an object of hostility during two centuries of the most profound Roman Catholic learning, and most perfect Roman Catholic eloquence. The revolt against the Papal power at the Reformation seized with avidity the memory of one, thus consigned in his own day, in life and after death, to the blackest obloquy, abandoned by most of his natural supporters, and from whose broad and undisguised assertions of Papal power later Popes had shrunk and attempted to efface them from their records. Thus Boniface VIII. has not merely been handed down, and justly, as the Pontiff of the loftiest spiritual pretensions, pretensions which, in their language at least, might have appalled Hildebrand or Innocent III., but almost all contemporary history as well as poetry, from the sublime verse of Dante to the vulgar but vigorous rhapsodies of Jacopone da Todi, are full of those striking and unforgetten touches of haughtiness and rapacity, many of which cannot be true, many ne-

doubt invented by his enemies, many others are suspicious, yet all show the height of detestation which, either by adherence to principles grown unpopular, or by his own arrogance and violence, he had raised in great part of Christendom. Boniface was hardly dead, when the epitaph, which no time can erase, from the impression of which the most candid mind strives with difficulty to emancipate itself, was proclaimed to the unprotesting Christian world: "He came in like a fox, he ruled like a lion, he died like a dog." Yet calmer justice, as well as the awful reverence for all successors of St. Peter, and the ardent corporate zeal which urges Roman Catholic writers on the forlorn hope of vindicating every act and every edict of every Roman Pontiff, have not left Boniface VIII. without defence; some, indeed, have ventured to appeal to the respect and admiration of posterity.*

The abdication of Cœlestine took place on the feast of St. Lucia. The law of Gregory X., which Dec. 13.
Conclave. secluded the Conclave in unapproachable separation from the world, had been re-enacted, but was not enforced to its utmost rigour. Latino Malebranca, the Cardinal who had exercised so much influence in the election of Cœlestine V., had been some months dead. The old Italian interest was represented by the Cardinals of the two great houses, long opposed in their fierce hereditary hostility, Guelf and Ghibelline, Matteo

* Cardinal Wiseman has embarked in this desperate cause with considerable learning and more ingenuity. His article in the "Dublin Review," now reprinted in his Essays, was answered at the time by a clever paper in the "British and Foreign Review," in which may be traced an Italian hand. Since that time have appeared Tosti's panegyric, but not very successful biography; and a fairer, more impartial Life by Drumann; not, however in my opinion equal to the subject.

Rosso and Napoleon the Orsinis, and the two Colonnas, of whom the elder, Peter, was a man of bold and unscrupulous ambition. But the preponderance of numbers was with the new Cardinals appointed by Coelestine at the dictation of Charles of Naples. Of these thirteen, seven (one was dead) were Frenchmen: it might seem that the election must absolutely depend on the will of Charles. Benedetto Gaetani stood alone; he was recommended by his consummate ability; but on that account, too, he was feared, perhaps suspected, by all who wished to rule, and few were there in the Conclave without that wish. The strong reaction might dispose the Cardinals to elect a Pope of the loftiest spiritual views, who might be expected to rescue the Poppedom from its present state of impotency and contempt: but that reaction would hardly counterpoise the rival ambition of the Orsinis and Colonnas, and the sworn subserviency of so many to the King of Naples.

The Cardinal Benedetto Gaetani was of a noble family in Anagni, which city from its patriciate had already given two of its greatest Popes to the chair of St. Peter. He was of blameless morals, and unrivalled in his knowledge of the Canon law, equally unrivalled in experience and the despatch of business. He had been in almost every kingdom of Western Christendom, England, France, Portugal, as the representative of the Pope; was personally known to most of the monarchs, and acquainted with the politics and churches of most of the realms in Europe. It had been at first supposed that Benedetto Gaetani, who had insulted King Charles at Perugia, and had haughtily rebuked him for his interference with the Conclave, would not venture to Naples. He had come the last,

and with reluctance:^b but his knowledge of affairs, and the superiority of his abilities, soon made him master in the deliberations of the Conclave. The abdication of Coelestine had been, if not at his suggestion, urged on the irresolute and vacillating Pope by his commanding mind; even if the vulgar artifices of frightening him into the determination were unnecessary, and beneath the severe character of Gaetani. The Conclave sat, in the Castel Nuovo at Naples, for ten days; at the close, Benedetto Gaetani, as it seemed, by unanimous consent, was declared Pope. The secrets of the intermediate proceedings might undoubtedly transpire; the hostility, which almost immediately broke out among all parties, would not scruple to reveal the darkest intrigues; those intrigues would even take the most naked and distinct form. Private mutual understandings would become direct covenants; promises made with reserve and caution, undisguised declarations. The vulgar rumours, therefore, would contain the truth, but more than the truth. It was no sudden acclamation, no deference at once to the superiority of Gaetani. The long delay shows a balance and strife of parties; the conqueror betrays by his success that he conducted most subtly, or adroitly, the game of conquest. Gaetani, it is said, not only availed himself of the irreconcilable hostility between the Orsinis and Colonnas, but played each against the other with exquisite dexterity. Each at length consented to leave the nomination to him, each expecting to be named. Gaetani named himself; the Orsini, Matteo Rosso, submitted; the Colonnas be-

^b See quotation above from Ptolem. Luc. "Venit igitur ultimus, et sic scivit deducere sua negotia, quod factus esset quasi Dominus Curie."—c. xxii. Ptolemy was present during most of these proceedings.

trayed their indignation; and this, if not the first, was the deepest cause of the mutual unforgiving hatred.^c From that time (it may however be remembered that the Colonnas were Ghibelline) was implacable feud between the Pope and that house. But the Italian interest, represented by the Orsinis and Colonnas, no longer ruled the Conclave. Charles of Naples must be propitiated, for he held perhaps twelve suffrages. Gaetani suggested, it was said, at a midnight interview with Charles, that a weak Pontiff could not befriend the King with half the power which might be wielded by a strong one. "King Charles, your Pope Cælestine had the will and the power to aid you, but knew not how; influence the Cardinals, your friends, in my favour, I shall have not only the will and the power, but the knowledge also to serve you."^d Charles's obsequious Cardinals gave their vote for Gaetani, it may be presumed with the consent or cognisance at least of Charles. Nor in justice can it be denied that if he pledged himself to use every effort for the reconquest of Sicily, he did more than adhere with unshaken fidelity to his engagements, even when it had been perhaps the better Papal policy to have abandoned the cause. It was unquestionably through the Pope's consummate ability, rather than by favouring circumstances or the popularity of his character, that Charles afterwards maintained the contest for that kingdom.

^c *Ferretus Vicentinus apud Muratori, S. R. T. t. ix. Ferretus, though a contemporary, is by no means an accurate writer: he has made some singular mistakes, and he wrote at Vicenza. Before it reached him, any private and doubtful negotiation, which we can hardly question took place,*

would become positive and determinate.

^d "Re Carlo, il tuo Papa Celestino t'ha voluto e potuto servira, ma non ha saputo: onde se tu adoperi co' tuoi amici Cardinali ch'è io sia eletto Papa, io saprò e verrò e potrò."—Villani, viii. 6.

Guelfism, too, brought Charles and Benedetto Gaetani into one common interest.

Benedetto Gaetani was chosen Pope with all apparent unanimity on the 23rd of December; no doubt it was truly said, not to his own dissatisfaction.^a He took the name of Boniface; it was reported that he intimated by that name that he was to be known by deeds rather than by words. The abdication, the negotiation with the conflicting Cardinals, with Charles of Naples, was the work of ten days, implying by its duration strife and resistance; by its rapidity, despatch, and boldness in reconciling strife and surmounting difficulty.

But no sooner was Gaetani Pope than he yearned for the independence, the sole supremacy, of Rome or the Roman dominions; he would not be a Pope, the instrument of, and in thrall to, a King at Naples. The most pressing invitations, the most urgent remonstrances, would not induce him to delay; he hurried on by Capua, Monte Casino, Anagni. In his native city he was welcomed with festive dances; everywhere received with humble deference, deference which he enforced by his lofty demeanour. At the gates of Rome he was met by the militia, by the knighthood, by the clergy of Rome, chanting in triumph, as though the Pope had escaped from prison. Italy, Christendom were to know that a true Pope had ascended the throne.

The inauguration of Boniface was the most magnificent which Rome had ever beheld.^f In his procession

^a "Electus est ipse non invitatus, non gemens,"—Popin. Chron. apud Muratori, c. xli. Dante suggests the fraudulent means of success—

"Sei tu al tosto de quel haver sazio,
Per lo qual non temi al torre a inganno
La bella Donna, n di poi farne strazio."
Inferno, xix. 55.

^f There is a very odd account of the difference of the voices of the Italian and French clergy during this ceremony:—

"Ille tonum Romanus avet clarum diapente,
Ille canit, scilicet ille graveza quartam dia-
tesaron
Lubricus in vocem nescit consistere pernix
Italus,

to St. Peter's and back to the Lateran palace, where he was entertained, he rode not a humble ass, but a noble white horse, richly caparisoned: he had a crown on his head; the King of Naples held the bridle on one side, his son, the King of Hungary, on the other. The nobility of Rome, the Orsinis, the Colonnas, the Savellis, the Stefaneschi, the Annibaldi, who had not only welcomed him to Rome, but conferred on him the Senatorial dignity, followed in a body: the procession could hardly force its way through the masses of the kneeling people. In the midst, a furious hurricane burst over the city, and extinguished every lamp and torch in the church. A darker omen followed: a riot broke out among the populace, in which forty lives were lost. The day after, the Pope dined in public in the Lateran; the two Kings waited behind his chair. Before his coronation, Boniface took a solemn oath of fidelity to St. Peter and to the Church, to maintain the great mysteries of the faith, the decrees of the eight General Councils, the ritual and Order of the Church, not to alienate the possessions of the Church, and to restore discipline. This oath was unusual (at least in its length), it was attested by a notary, and laid up in the Pontifical archives.*

Immediately after the consecration, a Manifesto proclaimed to Christendom the voluntary abdication of Celestine, on account of his acknowledged in experi-

Italus, ipse notas refricans, cœu nubila guttas.

*At flata mellis vox Gallica lege morosum
Præcinit, et garbis * geminans retinacula
puncti*

Instar habet durs percussus insudibus æris."
Cardin. St. George.

* Pagi and others have shown that the profession of faith attached to this oath cannot be genuine. Qu. ? forged when Boniface was afterwards accused of heresy ?

* Wirbel, *Germ.*; warble, *Engl.*

ence, incapacity, ignorance of secular affairs, love of devout solitude; and the elevation of Boniface, who had been compelled to accept the throne. But serious and dangerous doubts were still entertained, or might be made the specious pretext of rebellion against the authority of the Pope. Did the omnipotence of the Pope extend to the resignation of the office? His Bull, empowering himself to abdicate, and his abdication, were without precedent, and contrary to some canonical principles. Already, if not openly uttered, might be heard by the quick and jealous ears of Boniface some murmurs even among his Cardinals. No one knew better the versatility of Rome and of her nobles. Boniface was not the man to allow advantage to his adversaries, and adversaries he knew well that he had, and would have more, and those more formidable, if they should gain possession of the person of Cœlestine, and use his name for their own anarchical purposes.^b Cœlestine had abandoned the pomp and authority, he could not shake off the dangers and troubles, the jealousies and apprehensions which belonged to his former Cœlestine V state. The solitude, in which he hoped to live and die in peace, was closely watched; he was agitated by no groundless fears, probably by intimations, that it might be necessary to invite him to Rome. Once he escaped, and hid himself among some other hermits in a wood. But he could not elude the emissaries of Boniface. He received a more alarming warning of his danger, and

^b Angelano, the Cœlestinian Abbot of Monte Casino, was imprisoned in the terrible dungeon of the Lake of Bolsena, where the clergy were sent to expiate the worst crimes; he survived but few days, eating the bread of tribulation, drinking the water of

bitterness. According to Benedetto da Imola, his crime was having favoured the escape of Cœlestine. Testi suggests as more probable, that with his brother Cœlestinians he had dissuaded Cœlestine from the *gran rifiuto*.—Testi, Monte Casino, iii. p. 41.

fled to the sea-coast, in order to take refuge in the untrodden forests of Dalmatia. His little vessel was cast back by contrary winds; he was seized by the Governor of Iapygia, in the district of the Capitanata. He was sent, according to the order of Boniface, to Anagni. All along the road, for above one hundred and fifty miles, the people, deeply impressed with the sanctity of Coelestine, crowded around him with perilous homage. They plucked the hairs of the ass on which he rode, and cut off pieces of his garments to keep as reliques. They watched him at night till he went to rest; they were ready by thousands in the early morning to see him set forth upon his journey. Some of the more zealous entreated him to resume the Pontificate. The humility of Coelestine did not forsake him for an instant; everywhere he protested that his resignation was voluntary. He was brought into the presence of Boniface. Like the meanest son of the Church, he fell down at the feet of the Pope; his only prayer, a prayer urged with tears, was that he might be permitted to return to his desert hermitage. Boniface addressed him in severe language. He was committed to safe custody in the castle of Fumone, watched day and night by soldiers, like a prisoner of state. His treatment is described as more or less harsh, according as the writer is more or less favourable to Boniface.¹ By one account, his cell was so narrow that he had not room to move; where his feet stood when he celebrated mass by day, there his head reposed at night. He obtained with difficulty permission for two of his brethren to be with him; but so unwholesome was the place, that they were obliged to resign their charitable office. According to

Imprison-
ment.

¹ Ptolem. Luc. Stefaneschi. Vit. Celest. apud Bollandistas, with other Lives.

another statement, the narrowness of his cell was his own choice: he was permitted to indulge in this meritorious misery; his brethren were allowed free access to him; he suffered no insult, but was treated with the utmost humanity and respect. Death released him before long from his spontaneous or enforced wretchedness. He was seized with a fever, generated perhaps by the unhealthy confinement, accustomed as he had been to the free mountain air. He died

Death.

May 19, 1296, was buried with ostentatious publicity, that the world might know that Boniface now reigned without rival, in the church of Ferentino. The Cardinal Thomas, his own Cardinal, and Theodoric, the Pope's Chamberlain, conducted the ceremonial, to which all the prelates and clergy in the neighbourhood were summoned.^k Countless miracles were told of his death: a golden cross appeared to the soldiers, shining above the door of his cell: his soul was seen by a faithful disciple visibly ascending to heaven. His body became the cause of a fierce quarrel, and of a pious crime. It was stolen from the grave at Ferentino, and carried to Aquila. An insurrection of the people of Ferentino was hardly quelled by the Bishop; on the assurance, after the visitation of the tomb, that the heart of the Saint had been fortunately left behind, they consented to abandon their design of vengeance. Immediately on the death of Boniface the canonisation of Celestine was urgently demanded, especially by the enemies of that Pope. It was granted by Clement V. The monks of the Cœlestinian brotherhood (self-incorporated, self-organised) grew and flourished; they built convents in many parts of Italy, even in France. But the

Canonisation.
A.D. 1313.

^k Supplementum Vit. S. Celestin. apud Bo landistas.

memory of the Pope, who had disdained and thrown aside the Papal diadem, dwelt with no less veneration among the Fraticelli, the only true followers, as they averred, and in one respect justly averred, of St Francis. The Cœlestinians were not, strictly speaking, Franciscans; they were a separate Order; owed their foundation, as they said, to the sainted Pope; but held the same opinions, sprang from the same class, seem at length to have merged into and mingled with the lower and more fanatic of the Minorites. Of them, and of the place assigned to Cœlestine in the visions of the Abbot Joachim, the Book of the Everlasting Gospel, and in all the prophecies spread abroad by these wild sects more hereafter.

Boniface surveyed Christendom with the haughty glance of a master, but not altogether with the cool and penetrating wisdom of a statesman. Noble visions of universal pacification, of new crusades, of that glorious but impracticable scheme of uniting Europe in one vast confederacy against Saracenic sway, swept before his thoughts. To a mind like his, which held it to be sacrilege or impiety to recede from any claim once made by the See of Rome, and acknowledged by the ignorance, interests, or weakness of the temporal sovereign, the Papacy was a perilous height on which the steadiest head might become dizzy and lose its self-command. From Naples to Scotland the Papal supremacy was in possession of full, established, and acknowledged power, which took cognisance of the moral acts of sovereigns, their private life, their justice, humanity, respect for the rights of their subjects. It was thus absolutely illimitable. Besides this, the Popes held an actual feudal suzerainty over some of the smaller kingdoms, admitted by their kings in times of weakness, or in order to

legalise the usurpation of the throne by some new dynasty. For this power they could cite precedent, more or less venerable, recognised, uncontested; and precedent was universally held the great foundation of such tenure. It was an axiom of the Papal policy that rights, superiorities, sovereignties, once claimed by the Pope, belonged to the Pope: he claimed Corsica and Sardinia, partly as islands, partly as said to have formed a portion of the domains of the Countess Matilda, and then granted Corsica and Sardinia as his own inalienable, incontestable property. Not only Naples and Sicily, Arragon, Portugal, Hungary, Bohemia, Scotland, England—it was averred, though the indignant nation still repudiated, or but reluctantly acknowledged, the submission of John, and, still while it paid irregularly, murmured against the tribute—had been ceded as fiefs, or were claimed as owing that kind of allegiance. Over the Empire the Pope still asserted the privilege of the Pope's at least ratifying the election, of deposing the Emperor who might invade or violate the rights of the Roman See, rights indefinite and interpreted by his sole authority, against which lay no appeal. Even in France the ruling dynasty was liable to be reminded that the throne had been conferred by Pope Zacharias on Pepin the father of Charlemagne; so too on the Papal sanction rested its later transference to the House of Capet. Throughout Christendom the Pope had a kingdom of his own within every kingdom. The clergy, possessing a vast portion, in some countries more than half the land and wealth, and of unbounded influence, owed to him their first allegiance. They were assessable and to be taxed only for him or by his authority; and, though occasionally refractory, occasionally more true to their national descent and their national pride than to their

sacerdotal interests, and sometimes standing strongly on their separate hierarchical independence; yet, as they held their independence of the civil power, their immunities from taxation, their distinct sacred character, chiefly from the Pope, and looked to his spiritual arms for their security and protection, they were everywhere his subjects in the first instance. And besides the clergy, and compelling the clergy themselves to more unlimited Papal obedience, the monastic orders, more especially the Friars, were his great standing army, his garrison throughout the Christian world.

Boniface had visited many countries in Europe. It is asserted that in his youth he studied law in Paris, and even that he had been canon in that church.^m He had accompanied the Cardinal Ottobuoni to England, when sent by Alexander IV. to offer the crown of Sicily to the Prince Edmund. He had been joined in a mission with Matteo, Cardinal of Acqua Sparta, to adjust the conflicting claims of Charles of Anjou and Sicily, and of Rodolph, King of the Romans, to the inheritance of Provence. The treaty, which he drew, placed the Pope in the high office of arbiter in temporal as in spiritual matters. In any dispute as to the fulfilment or interpretation of the treaty, the two Kings submitted themselves absolutely to the judgement of the Pope.ⁿ For his success in this legation Gaetani had been rewarded with the Cardinalate. Gaetani had been employed to dissuade Charles of Anjou from his duel at Bordeaux with the King of Arragon. He had sat in Rome in a commission upon the ecclesiastical affairs of Portugal. The student of

^m Du Boulay, Hist. Univers. Paris. | Todi, of Lyons, of St. Peter in Rome.
 Tosli, Storia di Bonifazio VIII. to p. | He was also Apostolic Notary.
 31. He was canon also of Anagni, of | ⁿ Ravnauld, sub an. 1280.

law in the University of Paris returned to that city as Papal Legate (with the Cardinal of Parma) from Nicolas IV. They had the difficult commission to demand the refunding the tenths raised by Philip the Bold for a Crusade to the Holy Land, from his son Philip the Fair. He had thus experience of the stern rapacity of Philip the Fair, his defiance of all authority, even that of the Pope, in affairs of money. He had to allay the other most intense and dominant passion of the same Philip the Fair, hatred and jealousy of Edward I., King of England. On the first question he presided in a synod held in the church of St. Genevieve, a synod which ended in nothing. On the second point Philip was equally impracticable; he coldly repelled the advice which would reconcile him with his detested rival. The same Legates at Tarascon had been instructed to arrange the treaty between France, Charles of Naples, and Alfonso of Arragon. The peace had been settled, but broken off by the death of King Alfonso. Feb. 19,
1291.

But in all his travels and his intercourse with these sovereigns, Boniface had not discerned, or his haughty hierarchical spirit had refused to see, the revolution which had been slowly working throughout Christendom: in France the growth of the royal power; in England the aspirations after religious as well as civil freedom; the advance of the Universities; the rise of the civil lawyers, who were to meet the clergy on their own ground, and wrest from them the supremacy, or at least to confront them on equal terms in the field of jurisprudence—a lettered order, bound together by as strong a corporate spirit, and often hostile to the ecclesiastical canonists. Boniface had not discovered that the Papal power had reached, had passed its zenith;

that his attempt to raise it even higher, to exhibit it in a more naked and undisguised form than had been dared by Gregory VII. or Innocent III., would shake it to its base.

Boniface was bound by gratitude to Charles, King of Naples, claimant of Sicily, perhaps by a plighted or understood covenant during his election. His first act was one of haughty leniency: he granted a remission of any forfeiture of the fief of Naples which might have been incurred by his father, Charles of Anjou, or by Charles himself, for not having fulfilled the conditions of his vassalage. If either should have become liable, not merely to forfeiture, but to excommunication, as having violated any one of the covenants imposed by his liege lord the Church, had neglected or refused to pay the stipulated tribute, and thereby incurred deprivation, the Pope condescended to grant absolution on the condition of full satisfaction to the Church.* On the sudden death of Charles of Hungary, during the absence of King Charles of Naples, the Pope acted at once as Liege Lord of Hungary, appointed his Legate Landulph, and afterwards, yielding to the petitions of the people, the Queen Maria as Regent of the realm.

The interests of the Papal See, no less than his alliance with Charles of Naples, bound Pope Boniface to reconcile, if possible, the conflicting pretensions of the Houses of Anjou and Arragon. The Arragonese, notwithstanding the reiterated grants of the kingdom of Sicily to the Angevine, notwithstanding the most solemn excommunications, and the most strenuous warfare of the combined Papal and Angevine armies, had still

* Bull apud Raynaldum,

obstinately maintained their title by descent, election of the people, actual possession. The throne of Sicily had successively passed down the whole line of brothers, from Peter to Alfonso, from Alfonso to James, from James it had devolved, in fact, if not by any regular grant or title, through assent or connivance, on the more active and ambitious Frederick.

During the reign of the more peaceful James a treaty had been agreed to. Two marriages, to which Pope Coelestine removed the canonical impediments, ratified the peace. James of Arragon was espoused to Blanche, the daughter of Charles; Robert, son of Charles, to Iolante, the sister of James.* Throughout this whole transaction the Pope (now Boniface) assumed, and it should seem without protest, the power to grant the kingdoms of Arragon and Valencia. In the surrender of those kingdoms by Charles of Valois, he insisted on the full recognition that he had held them by grant of the Pope. They were regranted to James of Arragon, who on this tenure did not scruple to accept, as the successor of his brother Alfonso, the hereditary dominions of his house. All who presumed to June 24,
1295. impede or to disturb this peace were solemnly excommunicated at Anagni on St. John the Baptist's day.

But the younger branches of the house of Arragon had not been so easily overawed by the terrors of the Church to abandon the rich inheritance of Sicily, nor was Sicily, yet reeking with the blood shed at the Vespers, prepared to submit to the vengeance of the house of Anjou. The deep, inextinguishable hatred of the French was in the hearts of all orders; it was nursed by the remembrance of their merciless oppressions; by

* Briefs in Raynaldus, 1294.

the satisfaction of revenge once glutted, and the fear that the revolt, the Vesper massacre, and the years of war, would be even more terribly atoned for. Boniface knew the bold and ambitious character of Frederick, the younger son of the house of Arragon. He had a splendid lure for him—no less than the Empire of Constantinople. The Pope invited him to a conference. Frederick appeared on the coast of Italy with a powerful and well-appointed fleet, accompanied by John of Procida and the great Admiral Roger Loria, near Velletri. The Pope offered him the hand of Catherine Courtenay, the daughter of Philip, titular Latin Emperor of the East: all the powers of the West were to confederate and place her, with her young and valiant husband, on the Byzantine throne. To her likewise he had written, under the magnificent title of Empress of Constantinople, in a tone of parental persuasion and spiritual authority, urging her to give her hand to the brave Prince of Arragon.^a By so doing she would show herself a worthy descendant of her grandfather Baldwin and her father Philip, a dutiful daughter of the Church; she would not merely gain the glorious crown of her ancestors, but restore the erring and schismatical Greeks to their obedience to the Holy See.^r

A treaty was formed on the following terms. Charles of Valois fully surrendered his empty title to Arragon, and acquired a title (as empty it proved) to the throne of Corsica and Sardinia, with large subsidies in money. James of Arragon had the full recognition of his right to the throne of Arragon, which he already possessed,

^a Nicol, *Special*. ii. 21. Compare Amari, p. 363, ch. xiv.

^r Brief of the Pope to Catherine of Courtenay, Raynald, sub ann. 1298 (27th June).

peace, and the shame of having abandoned his brother and the claim of the house of Arragon to the throne of Sicily. The Pope secured, as he fondly hoped throughout, the lasting gratitude of Charles of Valois, the glory of having commanded peace, and the vain hope that he had deluded Frederick to surrender the actual possession of the throne of Sicily for a visionary empire in the East, which the Pope assumed the power, not of granting, but of having bestowed with the hand of the heiress to that barren title, Catherine of Courtenay. "A princess without a foot of land must not wed a prince without a foot of land; she was to bring her imperial dowry."^a

But the youthful Prince Frederick of Arragon was not so easily tempted by the astute Pontiff. He required time for consideration, and returned with his fleet to Sicily. Nor was James of Arragon so absolutely in earnest, nor so determined on the surrender of his hereditary claims on Sicily. In public he dared not own the treaty. Envoys were sent from Palermo to demand whether he had actually ceded the island to the Pope and the King of Naples. King James was forced to acknowledge that he had done so. On the publication of his answer, there was a cry in the streets of Palermo, "What sorrow is like unto our sorrow?" But in secret, it was said, King James had more than suggested resistance. He was asked, "How, then, shall Prince Frederick act?" "He is a soldier, and knows his duty; ye, too, know your duty." John of Calamandra was sent by the Pope to Messina to offer a blank parchment to the Sicilians, on which they were to inscribe whatever exemptions, immunities, or securities,

^a Brief of Pope Boniface, Raynald, 1206, c. 9.

might tempt the nation to acknowledge the treaty. A noble, Peter de Ansalo, drew his sword, "It is by the sword, not by parchments, that Sicily will win peace." The Papal Envoy left the island with all the haste of terror.¹

Frederick was crowned in the Cathedral of Palermo on Easter Day, with the acclamation of all Sicily, determined to resist to the utmost the abhorred dominion of the French. He sailed instantly with a powerful fleet, subjected Reggio and the country around, and threatened the whole kingdom of Naples. On Ascension Day the Pope condemned Frederick and the Sicilians by a bull, couched, if possible, in more than ordinarily terrific phrases. He heaped up charges of perfidy, usurpation, impiety, contempt of God and of his Church; he annulled absolutely and entirely the election of Frederick as King of Sicily; he threatened with excommunication, with the extremest spiritual and temporal penalties, all who should not instantly abandon his cause; he forbade all who owned spiritual allegiance to Rome to enter into treaty with him; and he revoked all indulgencies, privileges, or immunities, granted at any time to the kingdom of Sicily, more especially all granted to those concerned in the consecration or rather execration of the usurping King. The Sicilians, strong in their patriotism and their hatred of the French dominion, despised these idle fulminations. Charles must prepare for war, or rather the Pope in the name of Charles. But the resources of Naples were altogether exhausted; King Charles had paid a large sum to James of Arragon for the renunciation of his rights, and borrowed more of the Pope. Boniface was at once rapa-

March 21,
1268.

cious and liberal. He put off the day for the discharge of the first debt, and furnished five thousand ounces of gold. Charles was empowered to tax the Church property in his realm for this pious war, waged to maintain the rights of the Church.

The war of Sicily continued almost to the close of the Pontificate of Boniface VIII. King James of Arragon was summoned by the inflexible Pope to assist in wresting the kingdom from his brother; he received the title of standard-bearer of the Church. James obeyed with enforced but ostentatious obsequiousness. Yet he was suspected, perhaps not without reason, of a traitorous reluctance to conquer.^a The war dragged on, aggressive on the side of Frederick against Naples, rather than endangering Sicily. Roger de Loria, affronted by an untimely suspicion of perfidy, yielded to the temptation of the principality, over two barren islands on the coast of Africa, conquered from the Moors. The revolted Sicilian Admiral inflicted a terrible discomfiture on the fleet of his former sovereign, Frederick. But in the same year Frederick revenged himself by the total defeat of the army of Charles of Naples on the plains of Formicaria, and the capture of his son, Philip of Tarento. In the next year another naval victory raised still higher the fame of Roger Loria, who seemed to carry with him, whichever cause he espoused, the dominion of the sea. But the invasion of Sicily was baffled by the prudence and Fabian policy of King Fre-

A.D. 1297

July 4,
1299.

A.D. 1302.

^a "Quod si sacer Princeps Ecclesiæ ipsum ad hæc per edicta verenda promissus impellat, se licet invitum, Dei magis quam hominum offensam metuentem, necesse quidem esse favorabiliter obsequi. Cupiebat enim fratri suam, sed ut omnis objectio legitimâ causâ vestiretur, compelli voluit." —Ferret, Vicentin, apud Muratori, S. R. T. xi. p. 959.

derick. The Pope, at length weary of the expenditure, suspecting the lukewarm aid of James of Arragon, and not yet in open breach with Philip King of France, summoned Philip's brother, Charles of Valois, whose successes in Flanders had obtained for him the fame of a great general, to aid the final conquest of Sicily. Perhaps he meditated the transference of the crown of Naples and Sicily from the feeble descendants of the house of Anjou to the more powerful Charles of Valois. The summons to Charles of Valois was, as the invitation to French princes by the Pope to take part in Italian affairs has ever been, fatal to the liberties and welfare of Italy, ruinous to the Popes themselves. He did but crush the liberties of Florence, and left the excommunicated Frederick on the throne of Sicily.* "He came," says the historian, "to bring peace to Florence, and brought war; to wage war against Sicily, and concluded an ignominious peace." His invasion of Sicily with an overwhelming force only made more obstinate the resistance of the Sicilians: they met him not in the field; they allowed him to wear away his army in vain successes.† Boniface heard before his death that a treaty of peace had been sealed, leaving Frederick in peaceable possession of the whole island for his lifetime, under the title of King of Trinacria. The only price which he paid was the acceptance as his wife of a daughter of the house of Anjou. Frederick of Arragon, notwithstanding the terms of the treaty, by which on his death the crown of Sicily was

* 'Tempo vegg'io non molto doppo ancor
Che tragga un altro Carlo fuor di
Francia,
Per far conoscer meglio e sa, e' i suoi;
Senza arme n' esce, e solo con la lancia
Con la qual giostrò Giuda; e quella
punta

El, ch' a Firenze fa scoppiar la
pancia." *Purgat.* xx. 70.

† The war may be read fully
and well told in the last chapter of
Amari.

to revert to the King of Naples, handed it quietly down to his own posterity. But we must return hereafter to Charles of Valois.

Boniface aspired to be the pacificator of Italy, but it was not by a lofty superiority to the passions of the times, by tempering the ferocity of the conflicting factions, and with a stern but impartial justice repressing Guelf and Ghibelline; it was rather by avowedly proclaiming himself the head of the Guelfic interest, seizing the opportunity of the feebleness of the Empire to crush all the Imperialist faction, and to annul all the Imperial rights in Italy. Anagni had been a Ghibelline city; the Gaetani a Ghibelline family. But in Boniface the Churchman had long struggled triumphantly against the Ghibelline; the Papacy wrought him at once into a determined Guelf. Even before his pontificate he had connected himself with the Orsini, the enemies of his enemies, the Colonnas. The Ghibellines spread stories about Pope Boniface; true or false, naked or exaggerated truth, they found ready credence. The Ghibellines were masters, through the Orsini and Spinolas, of Genoa; the Archbishop Stephen Porchetto was of that family. In the solemn service of the Church, when the Pope strews ashes on the heads of all, to admonish them of the nothingness of man, instead of the usual words, Boniface broke out, "Ghibelline, remember that thou art dust, and with all other Ghibellines to dust thou shalt return." *

The Colonnas centered in themselves everything

* This, according to Muratori, if Jacob a Voragine (author of the *Legenda Aurea*).—Muratori, *S. R. I.* ix. Note on Jacob a Voragine, p. 10.

which could keep alive the well-grounded fear, the jealousy, the vindictiveness of the Pope, as well as to justify his desire of order, of law, and of peace. They had Ghibellinism, power, wealth, lawlessness, ill-concealed doubts of his title to the Papacy, no doubt ambition to transfer the Papacy to themselves. Under Nicolas IV. they had ruled supreme over the Pope; under Gaetani, would they endure to be nothing? All the Papacy could give or add to their vast possessions, titles, ranks, were theirs, or had been theirs but a few years ago. They had long been the great Ghibelline house. In Rome, still more in the Romagna, they had fortresses held to be impregnable—Palestrina, Nepi, Zagaruola, Colonna; and these gave them, if not the absolute command of the region, the power of plundering and tyrannising with impunity. Nor was that power under any constraint of respect for sacred things, of humanity, or of justice. They might become what the Counts and Nobles of former centuries had been, masters of the Papal territories, of the Papacy itself.

The Colonnas were strong, as has been seen, even in the conclave, in which sat two Cardinals of that house. The death of Cœlestine had not removed all doubt as to the validity of the election of Boniface. No one knew better than Boniface how the Colonnas had been deceived into giving their favourable suffrages, how deeply, if silently, they already repented of their weakness; how ready they would be to fall back on the illegality of the whole affair. There can be little question that they were watching the opportunity of revolt as eagerly as Boniface that of crushing the detested house of Colonna. It concerned his own security not less than that of the Papacy; the uncontested sovereignty of the Pope over his own dominions; the permanent rescue of

the throne of St. Peter from the tyranny of a fierce and unscrupulous host of bandit chieftains, and from Ghibelines at the gates of Rome, and even in Rome.^a

The Colonnas were so ill-advised, or so unable to restrain each other, as to give a plausible reason, and more than one reason, for the Pope to break out in just it seemed, if implacable, resentment. The Colonna, who held the city of Palestrina, surprised and carried off on the road to Anagni a rich caravan of furniture belonging to the Pope. The crime of one was the crime of all. But heavier charges were not wanting which involved the whole house. They were accused of conspiracy, as doubtless they had conspired in their wishes if not in overt acts, with Frederick of Arragon and the Sicilians. It was said that they had openly received in Palestrina Francis Crescentio and Nicolas Pazzi, citizens of Rome, envoys from Frederick of Arragon.^b There is a dark indication that already France was tampering in the opposition to Boniface.^c

A Bull came forth denouncing the whole family, their ancestors, as well as the present race, with indiscriminate condemnation, but centering all the penalty on the two Cardinals.^d Papal Bull
against the
Colonnas.
“Having taken into consideration the wicked acts of the Colonnas in former times, their present manifest relapse into their hereditary guiltiness, and our just

^a Compare Raynaldus, sub ann. 1297, p. 233.

^b Muratori doubts this (p. 256); it is not brought forward as a specific charge by the Pope, but for this the Pope might have his reasons. It is asserted by Villani, vii. 21; Ptolem. Lucen. in Annal. Chronicon Foroliviens. S. H. T. xlii. Testi has rather

ostentatiously brought forward a new cause of hostility. Cardinal James Colonna was trustee for his three brothers, and robbed them of their property. They appealed to the Pope. From Patrini, *Memorie Penestrina*, Rome, 1795.

^c See note next page.

^d The Bull in Raynaldus, A.D. 1297

fears of their former misdeeds, it is clear as daylight that this odious house of Colonna, cruel to its subjects, troublesome to its neighbours, the enemy of the Roman Republic, rebellious against the Holy Roman Church, the disturber of the public peace in the city and in the territory of Rome, impatient of equals, ungrateful for benefits, stranger to humility, and possessed by madness, having neither fear nor respect for man, and an insatiable lust to throw the city and the whole world into confusion, has endeavoured (here follow the specific charges) to instigate our dear sons James of Arragon and the noble youth Frederick to rebellion." The Pope then avows that he had summoned the Colonnas to surrender their castles of Palestrina, Colonna, and Zagaruola, into his hands. Their refusal to obey this imperious demand was at once the proof and the aggravation of their disloyalty. "Believing, then," he proceeds, "the rank of Cardinal held by these stubborn and intractable men to be a scandal to the faithful, we have determined, after trying those milder measures (the demand of the unconditional surrender of their castles), in the strength of the power of the Most High, to subdue the pride of the aforesaid James and Peter, to crush their arrogance, to cast them forth as diseased sheep from the fold, to depose them for ever from their high station." He goes on to deprive them of all their ecclesiastical rank and revenues, to declare them excommunicate, and to threaten with the severest censures of the Church all who should thenceforth treat them as Cardinals, or in any way befriend their cause. Such partisans were to be considered in heresy, schism, and rebellion, to lose all ecclesiastical rank, dignity, or bishopric, and to forfeit their estates. The descendants of one branch were declared incapable, to the fourth

generation, of entering into holy orders. Such was the attainder for their spiritual treason.

The Colonnas had offered, on the mediation of the Senator and the Commonalty of Rome, to submit themselves in the fullest manner to the Pope.* But the Pope would be satisfied with nothing less than the surrender of all their great castles. Therefore, when they could no longer avoid it, they accepted the defiance to internecine war. They answered by a proclamation of great length, hardly inferior in violence, more desperately daring than that of the Pope. They repudiated altogether the right of Boniface to the Pontificate; they denied the power of Cœlestine to resign. They accused Boniface of obtaining the abdication of Cœlestine by fraudulent means, by conditions and secret understandings, by stratagems and machinations;† they appealed to a General Council, that significant menace, in later times

Reply of the
Colonnas

* The senators and commonalty of Rome had persuaded the Colonnas to this course. "Suaserunt, induxerunt quod ad pedes nostros reverenter venirent, nostræ et ipsius Romanæ Ecclesiæ absolute ac liberè mandata facturi; ad quæ præfati schismatici et rebelles per ambasciatoribus responderunt, se venturos ad pedes nostros ac nostræ et præfate Ecclesiæ mandata facturos."—Epist. Bonifac. ad Pandect. Savelli, Orvieto, 29th Sept.

† These words are remarkable:—"Quod in renuntiatione ipsius multæ fraudes et doli, conditiones et intendimenta et machinationes, et tales et talia intervenisse multipliciter asseruntur, quod esto, quod posset fieri renuntiatio, de quo merito dubitatur, ipsam vitarent et redderent illegitimam, in-

efficacem, et nullam."—Apud Raynald, sub ann. 1297, No. 34. But the most remarkable fact regarding this document is that it was attested in the Castle of Longhezza by five dignitaries of the Church of France, the Provost of Rheims, the Archdeacon of Rouen, three canons, of Chartres, of Evreux, and of Senlis; and by three Franciscan friars, of whom one was the famous post Jacobone da Todi, afterwards persecuted by Boniface. This is of great importance. The quarrel with Philip the Fair had already begun in the year before; the Bull "Clericis Laicos" had been issued; and here is a confederacy of the Colonnas, the agents of the King of France, and the Cœlestinian Franciscans. It bears date May 10, 1297—Dupuy, Archives du Différend.

of such fearful power. This long argumentative declaration of the Colonna Cardinals was promulgated in all quarters, affixed to the doors of churches, and placed on the very altar of St. Peter. But the Colonnas stood alone; none other of the Conclave joined them; no popular tumult broke out on their side. Their allies, and allies they doubtless had, were beyond the Faro; within the Alps, Ghibellinism was overawed, and abandoned its champions, notwithstanding their purple, to the unresisted Pontiff. Boniface proceeded to pass his public sentence against his contumacious spiritual vassals. The sentence was a concentration of all the maledictory language of ecclesiastical wrath. No instrument, after a trial for capital treason, in any period, was drawn with more careful and vindictive particularity. It was not content with treating the appeal as heretical, blasphemous, and schismatical, but as an act of insanity. The Pope had an unanswerable argument against their denial of the validity of his election, their undisturbed, unprotesting allegiance during three years, their recognition of the Pope by assisting him in all his papal functions. The Bull denounced their audacity in presuming, after their deposition, to assume the names and to wear the dress and insignia of Cardinals. The penalty was not merely perpetual degradation, but excommunication in its severest form; the absolute confiscation of the entire estates, not only of the Cardinals, but of the whole Colonna family. It included, by name, John di San Vito, and Otho, the son of John, the brother of the Cardinal James and the father of Cardinal Peter, Agapeto, Stephen, and James Sciarra, sons of the same John, with all their kindred and relatives, and their descendants for ever. It absolutely incapacitated them from

Papal sentence
Dec. 1297.

holding rank, office, function, or property. All towns, castles, or places which harboured any of their persons fell under interdict; and the faithful were commanded to deliver them up wherever they might be found.

This proscription, this determination to extinguish one of the most ancient and powerful families of Italy, with the degradation of two Cardinals, was an act of rigour and severity beyond all precedent. Nor was it a loud and furious but idle menace. Boniface had not miscalculated his strength. The Orsini lent all their forces to humble the rival Colonnas, and a Crusade was proclaimed, a Crusade against two Cardinals of the Church, a Crusade at the gates of Rome.^g

The same indulgences were granted to those Jan. to Sept.
1298. who should take up arms against the Cardinals and their family which were offered to those who warred on the unbelievers in the Holy Land. The Cardinal of Porto, Matthew Acquasparta, Bishop of S. Sabina, commanded the army of the Pope in this sacred war. Stronghold after stronghold was stormed; castle after castle fell.^h Palestrina alone held out with intrepid obstinacy. Almost the whole Colonna house sought their last refuge in the walls of this redoubted fortress, which defied the siege, and wearied out the assailing forces. Guido di Montefeltro, a famous Ghibelline chieftain, had led a life of bloody and remorseless warfare, in which he was even more distinguished by craft than by valour. He had treated with contemptuous defiance all the papal censures which rebuked and would

^g Raynaldus, sub ann. 1298. Dante puts these words in the mouth of Guido di Montefeltro:—

^h *Lo principe de nuovi Farisei,
Havendo guerra presso a Laterano,*

*E non con Saracini nè con Ginei;
Che ciascun suo nimico era Cristiano;
E nessuno era stato a vincere Aciri,
Ne mercatante in terra di Soldano.*
Inferno, c. xxvii. 88

^h Ptolem. Lucen. p. 1212.

avenge his discomfiture of many papal generals and the depression of the Guelfs. In an access of devotion, now grown old, he had taken the habit and the vows of St. Francis, divorced his wife, given up his wealth, obtained remission of his sins, first from Cœlestine, afterwards from Boniface, and was living in quiet in a convent at Ancona.¹ He was summoned from his cell on his allegiance to the Pope, and with plenary absolution for his broken vows, commanded to inspect the walls, and give his counsel on the best means of reducing the stubborn citadel. The old soldier surveyed the impregnable defences, and then, requiring still further absolution for any crime of which he might be guilty, uttered his memorable oracle, "Promise largely; keep little of your promises."^k The large promises were made; the Colonnas opened their gates; within the prescribed three days appeared the two Cardinals, with others of the house, Agapeto and Sciarra, not on horseback, but more humbly, on foot, before the Pope at Rieti. They were received with outward blandness, and admitted to absolution. They afterwards averred^m that they had been tempted to surrender with the understanding that the Papal banners were to be displayed on the walls of Palestrina;

¹ Tosti, the apologetic biographer of Boniface VIII., endeavours to raise some chronological difficulties, which amount to this, that Palestrina surrendered in the month of September, and that Guido di Montefeltro died at Assisi (it might be suddenly, he was an old worn-out man) on the 23rd or 29th of that month.

^k "Lunga promessa, con attender corto."—*Inferno*, ix. Comment. di Benvenuto da Imola (apud Murator.),

Faet. Vicent. Papinus (ibid.). These are Ghibelline writers; this alone throws suspicion on their authority. But Dante waits as of a notorious fact. Tosti's argument, which infers from the Colonnas' act of humiliation, of which he adduces good evidence, that the surrender was unconditional, is more remarkable for its zeal than its logic.

^m In the proceedings before Clement V. apud Dupuy.

but that the Papal honour once satisfied, perhaps the fortifications dismantled, the city was to be restored to its lords. Not such was the design of Boniface. He determined to make the rebellious city an example of righteous pontifical rigour. He first condemned it to be no longer the seat of a Bishop; then commanded, as elder Rome her rival Carthage, that it should be utterly razed to the ground, passed over by the plough, and sown with salt, so as never again to be the habitation of man.* A new city, to be called the Papal city, was to be built in the neighbourhood.

The Colonnas found that they had nothing to hope, much to fear from the Pope, who was thus destroying, as it were, the lair of these wild beasts, whom he might seem determined to extirpate, rather than permit to resume any fragment of their dangerous power. Though themselves depressed, humbled, they were still formidable by their connexions. The Pope accused them, justly it might be such desperate men, of meditating new schemes of revolt. The Annibaleschi, their relatives, a powerful family, had raised or threatened to raise the Maremma. Boniface seized John of Ceccano of that house, cast him into prison, and confiscated all his lands. The Colonnas fled; some found refuge in Sicily; Stephen was received with honour in France. The Cardinals retired into obscurity. In France, too, after having been taken by corsairs arrived Sciarra Colonna, hereafter to wreak the terrible vengeance of his house upon the implacable Pope.

Throughout Italy Boniface had assumed the same

* "Ipsamque aratio subiei et veris instar Carthaginiæ Africane, ne salem in eum et fecimus et mandavimus seminari, ut nec rem, nec nomen, nec titulum haberet civitatis."—*See the edict in Raynaldus.*

imperious dictatorship. His aim, the suppression of the interminable wars which arrayed city against city, order against order, family against family, was not unbecoming his holy office; but it was in the tone of a master that he commanded the world to peace, a tone which provoked resistance. It was not by persuasive influence, which might lull the conflicting passions of men, and enlighten them as to their real interests. Nor was his arbitration so serenely superior to the disturbing impulse of Guelfic and Papal ambition as to be accepted as an impartial award. The depression of Ghibellinism, not Christian peace, might seem his ultimate aim.

Italy, however, was but a narrow part of the great spiritual realm over which Boniface aspired to maintain an authority surpassing, at least in the plain boldness of its pretensions, that of his most lofty predecessors. Boniface did not abandon the principle upon which the Popes had originally assumed the right of interposing in the quarrels of kings, their paramount duty to obey his summons as soldiers of the Cross, and to confederate for the reconquest of the Holy Land. But this object had shrunk into the background; even among the religious, the crusading passion, by being diverted to less holy purposes, was wellnigh extinguished; it had begun even to revolt more than stir popular feeling. But Boniface rather rested his mandates on the universal, and, as he declared, the unlimited supremacy of the Roman See.

The great antagonistic power which had so long wrestled with the Papacy had indeed fallen into comparative insignificance. The Empire, under Adolph of Nassau (though acknowledged as King of the Romans he had not yet received the Imperial

The Empire.
Adolph of
Nassau.

crown), had sunk from a formidable rival into an object of disdainful protection to the Pope.

On the death of Rodolph of Hapsburg the Princes of Germany dreaded the perpetuation of the Empire in that house, which had united to its Swabian possessions the great inheritance of Austria.

A D. 1291.

Albert of Austria, the son of Rodolph, was feared and hated; feared for his unmeasured ambition, extensive dominions, and the stern determination with which he had put down the continual insurrections in Austria and Styria; hated for his haughty and overbearing manners, and the undisguised despotism of his character. Wenzel, King of Bohemia, Albert, Elector of Saxony, Otho the Long, Margrave of Brandenburg, were drawn together by their common apprehensions and jealousy of the Austrian. The ecclesiastical Electors were equally averse to a hereditary Emperor, and to one of commanding power, ability, and resolution. But it was not easy to find a rival to oppose to the redoubted Albert, who reckoned almost in careless security on the succession to the Empire, and had already seized the regalia in the Castle of Trefels.

May, 1292.

Siegfried, Archbishop of Cologne, suggested the name of Adolph of Nassau, a prince with no qualification but intrepid valour and the fame of some military skill, but with neither wealth, territory, nor influence. Gerhard, the subtle Archbishop of Mentz, seized the opportunity of making an Emperor who should not merely be the vassal of the Church of Rome, but even of the Church in Germany. It was said that he threatened severally each elector that, if he refused his vote for Adolph, the Archbishop would bring forward that Prince who would be most obnoxious to each one of them. Adolph of Nassau was chosen King of the Romans, but he was

too poor to defray the cost of his own coronation : the magistrates of Frankfort opposed a tax which the Archbishop threatened to extort from the Jews of that city. The Archbishop of Mentz raised 20,000 marks of silver on the lands of his See ; and so the coronation of

June 24,
1292.

Adolph took place at Aix-la-Chapelle. But there was no disinterestedness in this act of the Archbishop. The elevation of Adolph of Nassau, if it did not begin, was the first flagrant example of the purchase of the Imperial crown by the sacrifice of its rights. The capitulations^a show the times. The King of the Romans was to compel the burghers of Mentz to pay a fine of 6000 marks of silver, imposed upon them by the Emperor Rodolph, for some act of disobedience to their Prelate ; he was neither in act nor in counsel to aid the burghers against that Prelate ; never to take Ulric of Hanau or Master Henry of Klingenberg into his counsels, or to show them any favour, but always to espouse the cause of the Archbishop and of the Church against these troublesome neighbours : he was to grant to the Archbishop certain villages and districts, with the privilege of a free city : to grant certain privileges and possessions to certain relatives of the Archbishop ; to protect him by his royal favour against the Duke of Brunswick, and all his enemies ; to grant the toll at Boppard on the Rhine in perpetuity to the Church of Mentz ; to pay all the debts due from the Archbishop to the Court of Rome, and to hold the Archbishop harmless from all processes in respect of such debts ; to repay all charges incurred on account of his coronation ; to grant to the Archbishop the Imperial cities of Muhlhausen and Nordhausen, and

Terms ex-
acted by the
Archbishop
of Mentz.
July 1.

^a Wurdwein, Diplom. Moguntiacæ, i. 28.

to compel the burghers to take the oath of fealty to him. Nor was this all. Among the further stipulations, the Emperor was to make over the Jews of Mentz (the Jews of the Empire were now the men of the Emperor) to the Archbishop; this superiority had been usurped by the burghers of Mentz. The Emperor was not to intermeddle with causes which belonged to the spiritual Courts; not to allow them to be brought before temporal tribunals; to leave the Archbishop and his clergy, and also all his suffragan bishops, in full possession of their immunities and rights, castles, fortresses, and goods. One article alone concerned the whole principedom of the Empire. No prince was to be summoned to the Imperial presence without the notice of fifteen weeks, prescribed by ancient usage. The other ecclesiastical electors were not quite so grasping in their demands: Cologne and Treves were content with the cession of certain towns and possessions. Adolph submitted to all these terms, which, if he had the will, he had hardly the power to fulfil.*

The Emperor, who was thus subservient to the Archbishop of Mentz, was not likely to offer any dangerous resistance to the pretensions of the Pope; and to him Pope Boniface issued his mandates and his inhibitions as to a subject. Adolph might at first have held the balance between the conflicting Kings of France and England; his inclinations or his necessities drove him into the party of England. He sent a cartel A.D. 1294. of defiance to the King of France, to which King Philip rejoined, if not insultingly, with the language of an equal. But the subtle as well as haughty Philip revenged himself on the hostile Empire by taking

* Compare throughout Schmidt, *Geschichte der Deutschen*, viii. p. 115, *et seqq.*

more serious advantage of its weakness. The last wreck of the kingdom of Arles, Provence, became part of the kingdom of France; the old county of Burgundy, Franche Comté, by skilful negotiations, was severed from the Empire.^a These hostile measures, and the subsidies of England, were irresistible to the indigent yet warlike Adolph. He declared himself the ally of Edward; and when Boniface sent two Cardinals to command France and England to make peace, at the same time the Bishops of Reggio and Sienna had instructions to warn the Emperor, under the terror of ecclesiastical censures, not to presume to interfere in the quarrel. The Pope's remonstrance was a bitter insult: "Becomes it so great and powerful a

A.D. 1295

Prince to serve as a common soldier for hire in the armies of England?"^r But English gold outweighed Apostolic censure and scorn. In the campaign in Flanders the Emperor Adolph had 2000 knights in arms on the side and in the pay of England. The rapid successes, however, of the King of France enabled Adolph at once to fulfil his engagements with England without much risk to his subsidiary troops. The Emperor was included in the peace to which the two monarchs were reduced under the arbitration of Boniface."

The reign of Adolph of Nassau was not long. Boniface may have contributed unintentionally to its early and fatal close by exacting the payment of the debt due from Gerhard of Mentz to the See of Rome, which Adolph was under covenant to discharge, but wanted the will or the power, or both. He would not apply

^a Leibnitz, *Cod. G. Diplom.* x. No. 18, p. 32

^r *Apud Raynald, 1295, No. 45.*

^s The documents may be read in

Raynaldus and in Rymer, *sub annis* Schmidt, *Geschichte der Deutschen*, viii. p. 130, *et seqq.*

the subsidies of England to this object. There was deep and sullen discontent throughout Germany.

At the coronation of Wenzel as King of Bohemia, Gerhard of Mentz performed the solemn office; JUNE 2,
1297. thirty-eight Princes of the Empire were present. Albert of Austria was lavish of his wealth and of his promises.[†] Gerhard was to receive 15,000 marks of silver. Count Hageloch was sent to Rome to purchase the assent of the Pope to the deposition of Adolph, and a new election to the Empire. Boniface refused all hearing to the offer. But Albert of Austria trusted to himself, his own arms, and to the League, which now embraced almost all the temporal and ecclesiastical Princes, the Elector of Saxony, the young Margrave of Brandenburg, Herman the Tall, the Ambassadors of Bohemia and Cologne. Adolph was declared deposed; Albert of Austria elected King of the Romans. The crimes alleged against Adolph were that he had plundered churches, debauched maidens, received pay from his inferior the King of England. He was also accused of having broken the seals of letters, administered justice for bribes, neither maintained the peace of the Empire, nor the security of the public roads. Thrice was he summoned to answer, and then condemned as contumacious. The one great quality of Adolph of Nassau, his personal bravery, was his ruin; he hastened to meet his rival in battle near Worms, plunged fiercely into the fray, and was slain.

The crime of Adolph's death (for a crime it was declared, an act of rebellion, treason, and murder, JULY 2,
1298. against the anointed head of the Empire) placed Albert of Austria at the mercy of the Pope.

[†] Schmidt, p. 137.

The sentence of excommunication was passed, which none but the Pope could annul, and which, suspended over the head of the King elect of the Romans, made him dependant, to a certain degree, on the Pope, for the validity of his unratified election, the security of his unconfirmed throne. And so affairs stood till the last fatal quarrel of Boniface with the King of France made the alliance of the Emperor not merely of high advantage, but almost of necessity. Albert's sins suddenly disappeared. The perjured usurper of the Empire, the murderer of his blameless predecessor, became without difficulty the legitimate King of the Romans, the uncontested Sovereign of the Holy Roman Empire.

CHAPTER VIII

Boniface VIII. England and France.

IF the Empire had sunk to impotence, almost to contempt, the kingdoms of France and England were rising towards the dawn of their future greatness. Each too had begun to develope itself towards that state which it fully attained only after some centuries, England that of a balanced constitutional realm, France that of an absolute monarchy. In England the kingly power was growing into strength in the hands of the able and vigorous Edward I.; but around it were rising likewise those free institutions which were hereafter to limit and to strengthen the royal authority. The national representation began to assume a more regular and extended form; the Parliaments were more frequent; the boroughs were confirmed in their right of choosing representatives; the commons were taking their place as at once an acknowledged and an influential Estate of the realm; the King had been compelled more than once, though reluctantly and evasively, to renew the great charters.^a The law became more distinct and authoritative, but it was not the Roman law, but the old common law descended from the Saxon times, and guaranteed by the charters wrested from the Norman kings. It grew up beside the canon law of the clergy, each rather avoiding the

England.
Development
of Constitu-
tion.

^a Throughout Hallam, *Middle Ages*, ii. 180, 188.

other's ground, than rigidly defining its own province. Edward was called the Justinian of England, but it was not by enacting a new code, but as framing statutes which embodied some of the principles of the common law of the kingdom. The clergy were still a separate caste, ruled by their own law, amenable almost exclusively to their own superiors; but they had gradually receded or been quietly repelled from their co-ordinate administration of the affairs and the justice of the realm. They were one Estate, but in the civil wars they had been divided: some were for the King, some boldly and freely sided with the Barons; and the Barons had become a great distinct aristocracy, whom the King was disposed to balance, not by the clergy, but by the commons. The King's justices had long begun to supersede the mingled court composed of the bishops and the barons: some bishops sat as barons, not as bishops. The civil courts were still wresting some privilege or power from the ecclesiastical. The clergy contended obstinately, but not always successfully, for exclusive jurisdiction in all causes relating to Church property, or property to which the Church advanced a claim, as to tithes. There was a slow, persevering determination, notwithstanding the triumph of Becket, to bring the clergy accused of civil offences under the judgement of the King's courts, thus infringing or rather abrogating the sole cognisance of the Church over Churchmen.^b It was enacted that the clerk might be arraigned in the King's court, and not surrendered to the ordinary till the full inquest in the matter of accusation had been carried out. On that the whole estate, real and personal, of the felon clerk might be seized. The ordinary

^b See the whole course of this silent change in Hallam, H. pp. 20-23.

thus became either the mere executioner, according to the Church's milder form of punishment, of a sentence passed by the civil court, or became obnoxious to the charge of protecting, or unjustly acquitting a convicted felon. If, while the property was thus boldly escheated, there was still some reverence for the sacred person of the "anointed of the Lord,"^a even archbishops will be seen, before two reigns are passed, bowing their necks to the block (for treason), without any severe shock to public feeling, or any potent remonstrance from the hierarchy. On the other hand, the singular usage, the benefit of clergy, by expanding that benefit over other classes, tended to mitigate the rigour of the penal law, with but rare infringements of substantial justice.^d

In France the royal power had grown up, checked by no great league of the feudal aristocracy, limited by no charter. The strong and remorseless rule of Philip Augustus, the popular virtues of Saint Louis, had lent lustre, and so brought power to the throne, which in England had been degraded by the tyrannical and pusillanimous John, and enfeebled by the long, inglorious reign of Henry III. In France the power of the clergy might have been a sufficient, as it was almost the only organised counterpoise to the kingly prerogative; but there had gradually risen, chiefly in the Universities, a new power, that of the Lawyers: they had begun to attain that ascendancy in the Parliaments which grew into absolute dominion over those assemblies. But the law which these men expounded was not like the common law of England, the

France.

The Law-
yers.

^a The alleged Scriptural groundwork of this immunity, "Touch not mine anointed, and do my prophets no harm" (Ps. cv. 15), was enshrined in the Decretals as an eternal, irrefragable axiom.

^d On benefit of clergy read the note in Sergeant Stephen's Blackstone, v. iv. p. 436.

growth of the forests of Germany, the old free Teutonic usages of the Franks, but the Roman imperial law, of which the Sovereign was the fountain and supreme head. The clergy had allowed this important study to escape out of their exclusive possession. It had been widely cultivated at Bologna, Paris, Auxerre, and other universities. The clergy had retired to their own stronghold of the canon law, while they seemed not aware of the dangerous rivals which were rising up against them. The Lawyers became thus, as it were, a new estate: they lent themselves, partly in opposition to the clergy, partly from the tendency of the Roman law, to the assertion and extension of the royal prerogative. The hierarchy found, almost suddenly, instead of a cowering superstitious people, awed by their superior learning, trembling at the fulminations of their authority, a grave intellectual aristocracy, equal to themselves in profound erudition, resting on ancient written authority, appealing to the vast body of the unabrogated civil law, of which they were perfect masters, opposing to the canons of the Church canons at least of greater antiquity. The King was to the lawyers what Cæsar had been to the Roman Empire, what the Pope was to the Churchmen. Cæsar was undisputed lord in his own realm, as Christ in his. The Pandects, it has been said, were the gospel of the lawyers.*

On the thrones of these two kingdoms, France and England, sat two kings with some resemblance, yet with some marked oppugnancy in their characters. Edward I. and Philip the Fair were both men of unmeasured ambition, strong deter-

Edward and Philip the Fair before the accession of Boniface VIII.

* Compare Sismondi, *Hist. des Français*, vii. 6, 10, and the eloquent but as usual rather overwrought passage in Michelet.

mination of will, with much of the ferocity and the craft of barbarism; neither of them scrupulous of bloodshed to attain his ends, neither disdainful of dark and crooked policy. There was more frank force in Edward; he was by nature and habit a warlike prince; the irresistible temptation of the crown of Scotland alone betrayed him into ungenerous and fraudulent proceedings. In Philip the Fair the gallantry of the French temperament broke out on rare occasions: his first Flemish campaigns were conducted with bravery and skill, but Philip ever preferred the subtle negotiation, the slow and wily encroachment; till his enemies were, if not in his power, at least at great disadvantage, he did not venture on the usurpation or invasion. In the slow systematic pursuit of his object he was utterly without scruple, without remorse. He was not so much cruel as altogether obtuse to human suffering, if necessary to the prosecution of his schemes; not so much rapacious as, finding money indispensable to his aggrandisement, seeking money by means of which he hardly seemed to discern the injustice or the folly. Never was man or monarch so intensely selfish as Philip the Fair: his own power was his ultimate scope; he extended so enormously the royal prerogative, the influence of France, because he was King of France. His rapacity, which persecuted the Templars, his vindictiveness, which warred on Boniface after death as through life, was this selfishness in other forms.

Edward of England was considerably the older of the two Kings. As Prince of Wales he had shown great ability and vigour in the suppression of the Barons' wars; he had rescued the endangered throne. He had been engaged in the Crusades; his was the last gleam of romantic valour and enterprise in the Holy Land,

even if the fine story of his wife Eleanora sucking the poison from his wound was the poetry of a later time. On his return from the East he heard of his father's death; his journey through Sicily and Italy was the triumphant procession of a champion of the Church; the great cities vied with each other in the magnificence of his reception. He had obtained satisfaction for the barbarous and sacrilegious murder of his kinsman, Henry of Almain, son of Richard of Cornwall, in the cathedral of Viterbo during the elevation of the Host, by Guy de Montfort with his brother Simon. The murderer (Simon had died) had been subjected to the most rigorous and humiliating penance.¹

Since his accession Edward had deliberately adhered to his great aim, the consolidation of the whole
 Nov. 1271. British islands under his sovereignty, to the comparative neglect of his continental possessions. He aspired to be the King of Great Britain rather than the vassal rival of France. He had subdued Wales; he had established his suzerainty over Scotland; he had awarded the throne of Scotland to John Baliol, whom he was almost goading to rebellion, in order to find a pretext for the subjugation of that kingdom. Edward, in the early part of his reign, was on the best terms with the clergy: he respected them, and they respected him. The clergy under Henry III. would have ruled the superstitious King with unbounded authority had they

¹ The documents relating to this strange murder are most of them in Rymer and in the MS, B. M. See especially letter of Gregory X., Nov. 29, 1273. Guy sought to be admitted to this Pope's presence at Florence; he with his accomplices

followed the Pope two miles out of the city, without shoes, without clothes, except their shirts and breeches. Guy threw himself at the Pope's feet, wept and howled, "ait at bas sine tenore." On the subsequent fate of Guy of Montfort see Dr. Lingard, vol. 31. p. 186.

not been involved in silent stubborn resistance to the See of Rome. Henry, as has been seen, heaped on them wealth and honours; but he offered no opposition to, he shared in, their immoderate taxation by Rome; he did not resist the possession of some of the richest benefices and bishoprics by foreigners. If his fear of the clergy was strong, his fear of the Pope was stronger; he was only prevented from being the slave of his own ecclesiastics because he preferred the remote and no less onerous servitude to Rome.^f But this quarrel of the English clergy with Rome was somewhat reconciled: the short lives of the later Popes, the vacancy in the See, the brief Papacy of Cœlestine, had relaxed, to some extent, the demands of tenths and subsidies. Edward therefore found the hierarchy ready to support him in his plans of insular conquest. John Peckham, Archbishop of Canterbury, accompanied him to Wales, and pronounced an excommunication against the rebellious princes: no voice was raised against the cruel and ignominious executions with which Edward secured and sullied his conquest.^h Against the massacre of the bards, perhaps esteemed by the English clergy mere barbarians, if not heathens, there was no remonstrance. Among the hundred and four judges appointed to examine into the claims of the competitors for the Scottish throne, Edward named twenty-four. Of these were four bishops, two deans, one archdeacon, and some other clergy. The Scots named eight bishops and several abbots. Edward's great financial measure, the remorseless plunder and cruel expatriation of the Jews, was beheld by the clergy as a noble act of Christian vigour.

^f We must not forget his difficulties about Prince Edmund's claim to Sicily.

^h Collier, i. p. 484.

Among the cancelled debts were vast numbers of theirs; among the plunder no inconsiderable portion had been Church property, pawned or sold by necessitous or irreligious ecclesiastics. The great wealth obtained for the instant by the King might stave off, they would fondly hope, for some time, all demands on the Church.¹

If Edward of England meditated the reduction of the whole British islands under one monarchy, and had pursued this end since his accession with unswerving determination, Philip the Fair coveted with no less eager ambition the continental territories of England. He too aspired to be King of all France, not mere feudal sovereign over almost independent vassals, but actual ruling monarch. He had succeeded in incorporating the wreck of the kingdom of Arles with his own realm. He had laid the train for the annexation of Burgundy: his son was affianced to the daughter and heiress of Otho V. Edward, however, had given no cause for aggression; he had performed with scrupulous punctiliousness all the acts of homage and fealty which the King of France could command for the lands of Gascony, Guienne, and the other hereditary possessions of the Kings of England.

There had been peace between France and England for the unusual period of thirty-five years, but already misunderstanding and jealousies had begun. Peace between two such Kings, in such relation to each other, in such an age, could hardly be permanent. The successes of Edward in his own realm stimulated rather than appalled the unscrupulous

¹ Hist. of Jews, iii. 258-262. The documents may be read in Anglia Judaica. Tovey says (p. 244) whole rolls of patents relating to their estates are still remaining in the Tower. Have we not any Jewish antiquaries to explore this mine?

ambition of Philip. An accidental quarrel among the mariners of the two nations was the signal for the explosion of these smouldering hostilities. The quarrel led to piratical warfare, waged with the utmost cruelty along the whole British Channel and the western coast of France. The King of France was only too ready to demand satisfaction. Edward of England, though reluctant to engage in continental warfare, could not abandon his own subjects; yet so absorbed was Edward in his own affairs that he became the victim of the grossest artifice. The first offenders in the quarrel had been sailors of Edward's port of Bayonne. It was indispensable for the honour of France that they should suffer condign punishment. Guienne must be surrendered for a time to the Suzerain, the King of France, that he might exercise his unresisted jurisdiction over the criminals. Philip was permitted to march into Guienne, and to occupy with force some of the strongest castles. On the demand of restitution he laughed to scorn the deluded Edward; negotiations, remonstrances, were equally unavailing. The affront was too flagrant and humiliating, the loss too precious; war seemed inevitable. Edward, by his heralds, renounced his allegiance; he would no longer be the man, the vassal, of a King who violated all treaties sworn to by their common ancestors. But the Barons and the Churchmen of England were now averse to foreign wars: their subsidies, their aids, their musters, were slow, reluctant, almost refused. Each Sovereign strengthened himself with foreign allies: Edward, as has been said, subsidised the Emperor Adolph of Nassau, and entered into a league with the Counts of Flanders and of Bar, who were prepared to raise the standard of revolt against the Suzerain, the King of France. Philip

entered into hardly less dangerous correspondence with the opponents of Edward's power in Scotland.^k

So stood affairs between the kingdoms of France and England at the accession of Boniface VIII.
Accession of Boniface
Dec. 1291. Philip had now overrun the whole of Gascony, and Edward had renounced all allegiance, and declared that he would hold his Aquitanian possessions without fealty to the King of France; but the Seneschal of Gascony had been defeated and was a prisoner.^m Duke John of Brabant had risen in rebellion against the King of France; he had been compelled to humiliating submission by Charles of Valois. Almost the first act of Boniface was to command peace. Berard, Cardinal Bishop of Alba, and Simon, Cardinal Bishop of Palestrina, were sent as Legates, armed with the power of releasing from all oaths or obligations which might stand in the way of pacification, and of inflicting ecclesiastical censures, without appeal, upon all, of whatsoever degree, rank, or condition, who should rebel against their authority.ⁿ The Cardinals crossed to England; they were received in a full Parliament at Westminster. The King of England ordered his brother Edmund and John de Lacy to explain the causes of the war, his grievances and insults endured from the King of France. The Cardinals peremptorily insisted on peace. Edward replied that he could not make peace without the concurrence of his ally the King of the Romans. The Cardinals urged a truce; this Edward rejected with equal determination. They endeavoured to prevent the sailing of Edward's fleet, already assembled in the ports of the

^k Documents in Rymer, sub ann. 1294. Walsingham, 61. Hume, Edward I.

^m Jordanus apud Raynald. Matt. Westmonast. sub ann.

ⁿ Instructions in Raynald, sub ann. 1295.

island. Edward steadily refused even that concession. But Boniface was not so to be silenced; he declared all existing treaties of alliance null and void, and peremptorily enjoined a truce from St. John Baptist's day until the same festival in the ensuing year.^o To Edward he wrote expressing his surprise and grief that he, who in his youth had waged only holy wars against unbelievers, should fall off in his mature age into a disturber of the peace of Christendom, and feel no compunction at the slaughter of Christians by each other. He wrote, as has been told, in more haughty and almost contemptuous language to the King of the Romans; he reproached him for serving as a base mercenary of the King of England: the King of the Romans, if disobedient, could have no hope or claim to the Imperial Crown; obedient, he might merit not only the praise of man, but the favour and patronage of the Apostolic See. The Archbishop of Mentz was commanded to give no aid whatever to the King of the Romans in this unholy war; on Adolph too was imperatively urged the truce for a year.^p

The Cardinal Legates, Alba and Palestrina, discouraged by their reception in England, did not venture to appear before the more haughty and irascible Philip of France with the Pope's imperious mandate; they assumed that the truce for a year, enjoined by the Pope, would find obsequious observance. Boniface did not think fit to rebuke their judicious prudence; but of his own supreme power ordered that on the expiration of

^o Raynald, sub ann. 1295.

^p Letters apud Raynald. 1295. The Nuncios in Germany, the Bishops of

Reggio and Sienna, had full powers to release from all oaths and treaties. See above, p. 36.

the first year the truce should be continued for two years longer.¹

The blessings of peace, the league of all Christian princes against the Infidel, might be the remote and splendid end which Boniface either had or thought he had in view in his confident assertion of his inhibitory powers, and his right of interposing in the quarrels of Christian princes. But there was one immediate and pressing evil which could not well escape his sagacity. Such wars could no longer be carried on without the

Taxation of
the clergy

Inevitable
results of
war

taxation of the clergy. Not merely was the Pope the supreme guardian of this inestimable immunity, freedom from civil assessments, but it was impossible that the clergy either could or would endure the double burthens imposed on them by their own Sovereigns and by the See of Rome. All the subjects of the Roman See, as they owed, if not exclusive, yet superior allegiance to the Pope, so their vast possessions must be tributary to him alone, at least his permission must be obtained for contributions to secular purposes. Wars, even if conducted on the perfect feudal principle (each Lord, at the summons of the Crown, levying, arming, bringing into the field, and maintaining his vassals at his own cost), were necessarily conducted with much growing expense for munitions of war, military engines, commissariat however imperfect, vessels for freight, if in foreign lands. But the principle of feudalism had been weakened; war ceased to be the one noble, the one not ignominious calling, the duty and privilege of the aristocracy at the head of their retainers. No sooner had agriculture,

¹ The Bull in Raynaldus (1206, No. 19), addressed to Adolph, King of the Romans.

commerce, manufactures, become respectable and lucrative; no sooner must armies be raised and retained on service, even in part, by regular pay, than the cost of keeping such armies on foot began to augment beyond all proportion. The ecclesiastics who held Knights' Fees were bound to furnish their quota of vassals; they did often furnish them with tolerable regularity; they had even appeared often, and still appeared, at the head of their contingent; yet there must have been more difficulty, more frequent evasion, more dispute as to liability of service, as the land of the realm fell more and more into the hands of the clergy. Though the great Statute of Mortmain, enacted by successive Kings, the first bold limitary law to the Statute of Mortmain all-absorbing acquisition of land by the clergy, may have been at first more directly aimed at other losses sustained by the Crown, when estates were held by ecclesiastic or monastic bodies, such as reliefs upon succession, upon alienation, upon wardships and marriages, which could not arise out of lands held by perpetual corporations and corporations perpetuated by ecclesiastical descent; yet among the objects sought by that Statute must have been that the Crown should be less dependent on ecclesiastical retainers in time of war.

The Mortmain Statute,* of which the principle was established by the Great Charter, only applied to religious houses. The second great Charter of Henry III. comprehended the whole Hierarchy, Bishops, Chapters, and Beneficiaries. The Statute of Edward endeavoured to strike at the root of the evil, and prohibited the receiving land in mortmain, whether by gift, bequest, or any other mode; the penalty was the forfeiture of the

* 7th Edward I. Compare Hallam, ii. p. 24.

land to the Lord, in default of the Lord to the King. But the law, or the interpretation of the law, was still in the hands or at the command of the clergy, who were the only learned body in the realm. Ingenious devices were framed, fictitious titles to the original fief, fraudulent or collusive acknowledgements, refusal or neglect to plead on the part of the tenant, and so recoveries of the land by the Church, as originally and indefeasibly its own; afterwards grants to feoffees in perpetuity, or for long terms of years, for the use of religious houses or ecclesiastics. It required two later Statutes, that of Westminster under Edward I. (in his eighteenth year), finally that of Richard II. (in his fifteenth year), before the skill and ingenuity of this hierarchical invasion of property was finally baffled, and an end put to the all-absorbing aggression of the Church on the land of England.*

The Popes themselves had, to a certain extent, given the authority and the precedent in the direct taxation of the clergy for purposes of war; but these were for holy wars. Sovereigns, themselves engaged in crusades, or who allowed crusades to be preached and troops raised and armed in their dominions for that sacred object, occasionally received grants of twentieths, tenths, or more, on the ecclesiastical revenues for this religious use. In many instances the Sovereigns, following the examples, as was believed, of the Popes themselves, had raised the money under this pretext and applied it to their own more profane purposes, and thus had learned to look on ecclesiastical property as by no means so sacred, to hold the violation of its peculiar exemptions very far from the impious sacrilege which it had been

* Blackstone, ii. ch. 18.

asserted and believed to be in more superstitious times. But all subsidies, which in latter years had begun to be granted in England, at least throughout the reign of Henry III., had been held to be free gifts, voted by the clergy themselves in their own special Synods or Convocations. Now, however, these voluntary subsidies, suggested by the King's friends among the clergy, but liable to absolute refusal, had grown into imperative exactions. Edward, as his necessities became more urgent, from his conquests, his intrigues, his now open invasion of Scotland, and the impending war with France, could not, if he hoped for success, and was not disposed from any overweening terror of the spiritual power, to permit one-third or one-half¹ (if we are to believe some statements), at all events a very large portion of the realm, to withhold its contribution to the public service. The wealth of the clergy, the facility with which, if he once got over his religious fear and scruples, such taxes could be levied; the natural desire of forestalling the demands of Rome, which so fatally, according to the economic views of the time, drained the land of a large portion of its wealth; perhaps his own mistaken policy in expelling the Jews, and so inflicting at once a heavy blow on the trade of the country, and depriving him of a wealthy class whom he might have plundered in a more slow and productive manner without remorse, resistance, or remonstrance; all conspired to urge the King on his course. Certainly, whatever his motives, his wants, or his designs, Edward had already asserted, in various ways and in the boldest manner, his right to tax the clergy, had raised the tax to an unprecedented amount,

¹ See the passage in Turner's Hist. of England, in a future Note. This subject will be discussed hereafter.

and showed that he would hesitate at no means to enforce his demands. He had obtained from Pope Nicolas IV. (about 1291) a grant of the tenth of the whole ecclesiastical property, under the pretext of an expedition to the Holy Land, a pretext which the Pope would more easily admit from a Prince who had already displayed his zeal and valour in a Crusade, and of which Edward himself, after the subjugation of Wales and Scotland and the security of his French dominions, might remotely contemplate the fulfilment. This grant was assessed on a new valuation,^a enforced on oath, and which probably raised to a great amount the value of the Church property, and so increased the demands of the King, and aggravated the burthens of the clergy.^b By another more arbitrary act, before his war in Guienne, Edward had appointed Commissioners to make inquisition into the treasuries of all the religious houses and chapters in the realm. Not only were these

^a This valuation was maintained, as that on which all ecclesiastical property was assessed, till the time of Henry VIII. It was published in 1802 by the Record Commission, folio.

^b In the MS, B M, sub ann 1278, vol. xiii., is an account of the "Societas" of the Ricardi of Florence, for tenths collected in England. The total sum (the details of each diocese are given, but some, as Canterbury and London, do not appear) is 11,035*l.*, xiv. solidi, 3 denarii. The bankers undertake to deliver the same in London or any place, "ultra et citra mare." They take upon themselves all risks of pillage, theft, violence, fire, or shipwreck. Whence their profits do not appear. "E io Rainieri sopra-dito con la mia mano abo inserito quie

di sotto, e messo lo mio sugello, con quello dela compagnia" Other signatures follow. In a later account, after the valuation of Nicolas IV., dated Aug. 30, vol. xv, the whole property, with the exception of the goods of the Bishops of Winchester and Lincoln, and Christ Church, Canterbury, is set at 204,143*l.* 1*0s.* 2*d.* et oboli; the tenth, 20,404*l.* 1*0s.* 2*d.* et oboli. Winton and Lincoln, 3977*l.* 15*s.* 7*d.* &c., tenth, 3977 15*s.* 8*d.* 10 oboli. Christ Church, 355*l.* 9*s.* 2*d.*; tenth, 35*l.* 10*s.* 11*d.* Special tax on pluralities, 73*l.* 10*s.* 11*d.* 1. Total collected, 20,855*l.* 7*s.* 8*d.* In another place, the Dean of St Paul's as treasurer (vol. xiii p. 110), accounts for the sum of 3135*l.* 7*s.* 3*d.* 1, arrears for three years.

religious houses in possession of considerable accumulations of wealth, but they were the only banks of deposit in which others could lay up their riches in security. All these sums were enrolled in the Exchequer, and, under the specious name of loans, carried off for the King's use.

But with the King's necessities, the King's demands grew in urgency, frequency, imperiousness. AD 1294.
It was during the brief Pontificate of Cœlestine V., when Robert of Winchelsea, the Archbishop of Canterbury, was at Rome to receive his pall from the hands of the Pope, that the King in a Parliament at Westminster demanded of the clergy a subsidy of half of their annual revenue. The clergy were confounded; they entreated permission to retire and consult on the grave question. William Montfort, Dean of St. Paul's, was chosen to persuade the King to desist from, or at least to reduce his demand to some less exorbitant amount. The Dean had hardly begun his July speech, when he fell dead at the feet of the King. Edward was unmoved; he might perhaps turn the natural argument of the clergy on themselves, and treat the death of Montfort as a judgement of God upon a refractory subject. He sent Sir John Havering to the Prelates, who were still shut up in the royal palace at Westminster. The Knight was to proclaim that whoever opposed the King's will was to come forth and discover himself; and that the King would at once proceed against him as a disturber of the public peace. The spirit of Becket prevailed not among the Prelates; no one would venture to put to the test the stern and determined Edward. They submitted with ungracious reluctance, in hopes no doubt that their Primate would soon appear among them; and that he, braced, as it

were, by the air of Rome, would bear the brunt of opposition to the King.^y

If the necessities of Edward drove him to these strong measures against the clergy of England, the French hierarchy had still more to dread from the insatiable rapacity and wants of Philip the Fair. That rapacity, the remorseless oppression of the whole people by the despotic monarch, and his loss of their loyal affection, was now so notorious that the Pope, in one of his letters to the King, speaks of it as an admitted fact.^z Philip had as yet been engaged in no expensive wars; his court might indulge in some coarse pomp and luxury; yet trade might have flourished, even arts and manufactures might have been introduced from Flanders and Italy, but for the stern and exterminating measures of his rude finance. His coffers were always filling, never full; and he knew no way of raising a revenue but by direct and cruel extortion, exercised by himself, or by his farmers of the taxes under his seal and authority. Two Italian bankers, the brothers Biccio and Musciatto dei Francesi, possessed his entire confidence, and were armed with his unlimited powers. But the taxes wrung from the tenants of the crown, from the peasants to whom they left not the seed for the future harvest, were soon exhausted, and of course diminished with every year of intolerable burthen: other sources of wealth must be discovered.

The Jews were the first; their strange obstinacy in money-making made them his perpetual victims. Philip

^y Compare Collier, *Ecc. Hist.* i. p. 493, folio edit.

^z "Ipsi quidem subditi adeo sunt diversis oneribus aggravati, quod eorum ad te solita et subjecta multum

putatur infriguisse devotio, et quanto amplius aggravantur, tanto potius in posterum refrigescat."—*Ad Philip. Reg.* Dupuy, p. 18.

might seem to feed them up by his favour to become a richer sacrifice:^a he sold to particular persons acts of security; he exacted large sums The Jews as though he would protect them in fair trade from their communities. At length after some years of this plundering and pacifying, came the fatal blow, their expulsion from the realm with every aggravation of cruelty, the seizure and confiscation of their property.^b What is more strange, the persecuted and A.D. 1306 exiled Jews were in five years rich and numerous enough to tempt a second expulsion, a second confiscation.

But in France the Jews had formidable commercial rivals in the Italian bankers. Philip respected wealthy Christians no more than wealthy misbelievers. The whole of these peaceful and opulent men May 1, 1291. were seized and imprisoned on the charge of violating the laws against usury; and to warn them from that unchristian practice, they were mercifully threatened with the severest tortures, to be escaped only on the payment of enormous mulcts.^c Some resisted; but the gaolers had their orders to urge upon the weary prisoners the inflexible determination of the King. Most of them yielded; but they fled the inhospitable realm; and if they left behind much of their actual wealth, they carried with them their enterprise and industry.^d The Francosis, Philip's odious financiers, derived a double advantage from their departure, the

^a In 1288 he forbade the arbitrary imprisonment of the Jews at the desire of any monk. This seems to have been a common practice.

^b Hist. of Jews, iii. p. 206-7.

^c Villani, vii. c. 146

^d Villani (vii. 146). The commercial Florentine sees the ruin of France in this ill usage of the Italian bankers. "Onde fu molto apresso, e d' allora innanzi lo reame di Francia sempre andò abbassando."

plunder of their riches and the monopoly of all the internal trade, which had been carried on by their exiled countrymen, with the sole liberty no doubt of violating with impunity the awful laws against usury.

Philip even had strength and daring to plunder his Nobles. Under the pretext of a sumptuary law, which limited the possession of such pompous indulgences to those few who possessed more than six thousand livres tournois^e of annual revenue, he demanded the surrender of all their gold and silver plate, it was averred, only for safe custody; but that which reached the royal treasury only came out in the shape of stamped coin. This stamped coin was greatly inferior, in weight and from its alloy, to the current money. The King could not deny or dissemble the iniquity of this transaction; he excused it from the urgent necessities of the kingdom; promised that the treasury would reimburse the loss; that the royal exchequer would receive the coin at its nominal value; and even promised to pledge the royal domains as security. But Philip's promises in affairs of money were but specious evasions.^f

As an order, the clergy of France had not been subjected to any direct or special taxation under the name of voluntary subsidy; but Philip had shown on many occasions no pious respect for the goods of the Church; he had long retained the estates of vacant bishoprics. Their time could not but come. Philip at the beginning of his reign had struck a fatal blow against the clergy, of which the clergy itself, not then ruled by Boniface, perhaps hardly discerned the

^e Equal, it is calculated, to 72,000 francs, probably much more.

^f Ordonnances des Rois, May, 1295.

hearings even on the future inevitable question of their taxation by the state. He banished the clergy from the whole administration of the law: expelled them from the courts, from that time forth to be the special and undisputed domain of their rivals and future foes, the civil lawyers. An Ordinance commanded all dukes, counts, barons, archbishops, bishops, abbots, chapters, who had jurisdiction, to commit the exercise of that jurisdiction to bailiffs, provosts, and assessors, not ecclesiastics. The pretext was specious, that if such men abused their power, they could be punished for the abuse. It was also forbidden to all chapters and monasteries to employ an ecclesiastic as proctor. Another Ordinance deprived the clergy of the right of being elected as provost, mayor, sheriff (*échevin*), or municipal councillor. Bishops could only sit in the Royal Parliament by permission of the President.^g

Still up to this time the clergy had not been subjected to the common assessments. The first taxation, which bore the odious name of the *mal-tôte* (the ill assessed and ill levied), respected them.^h It had fallen chiefly, if not exclusively, on the traders. But whether emboldened by the success of his rival Edward in England, or knowing that, if Edward wielded the wealth of the English clergy, he must wield that of France, in the now extraordinary impost the impartial assessment comprehended ecclesiastics as well as the laity.

Boniface VIII., with all his ability and sagacity, was possessed even to infatuation with the conviction of the unlimited, irresistible power of the Papacy. He determined, once for all, on the broadest, boldest, most

^g *Ordonnances des Rois, 1287-1289.*

^h *Sub ann. 1292.*

uncontestable ground to bring to issue this inevitable question; to sever the property of the Church from all secular obligations; to declare himself the one exclusive trustee of all the lands, goods, and properties, held throughout Christendom by the clergy, by monastic bodies, even by the universities: and that, without his consent, no aid, benevolence, grant, or subsidy could be raised on their estates or possessions by any temporal sovereign in the world. Such is the full and distinct sense of the famous Bull issued by Boniface <sup>The Bull
"Clericis
Laicos."</sup> at the commencement of the second year of his Pontificate. "The laity, such is the witness of all antiquity, have been ever hostile to the clergy: recent experience sadly confirms this truth. They are ignorant that over ecclesiastical persons, over ecclesiastical property, they have no power whatever. But they have dared to exact both from the secular and the regular clergy a twentieth, a tenth, half of their revenue,¹ and applied the money to their own secular uses. Some base and time-serving prelates have been so dastardly as to submit to these wicked exactions." The prohibition of the Pope was as particular and explicit as could be framed in words. "On no title, on no plea, under no name, was any tax to be levied on any property of the Church, without the distinct permission of the Pope. Every layman of whatever rank, emperor, king, prince, duke, or their officers, who received such money, was at once and absolutely under excommunication; they could only be absolved, under competent authority, at the hour of death. Every ecclesiastic who

¹ This seems aimed directly at Edward I. It was believed in England that the bull was obtained by the influence of the English primate, Robert of Winchelsea, then at Rome.

bmitted to such taxation was at once deposed, and capable of holding any benefice. The Universities which should so offend were under interdict.”^k

But the Kings of France and England were not so easily appalled into acquiescence in a claim which either smote their exchequer with barrenness, or reduced them to dependence not only on their own subjects, but also on the Pope. It gave to the Pontiff of Rome the ultimate judgement on war and peace between nations. Edward had gone too far: he had derived too much advantage from the subsidies of the clergy to abandon that fruitful source of revenue. The year after the levy of one-half of the income of the clergy, a Parliament met at St. Edmondsbury. The king granted a subsidy; the clergy, pleading their inability, as drained by the payment of the last year, or emboldened by the presence of the Primate Robert of Winchelsea, refused all further grant. The King allowed time for deliberation, but in the mean time with significant precaution ordered locks to be placed on all their barns, and that they should be sealed with the King's seal. The Archbishop at once commanded the Bull of Pope Boniface to be read publicly in all the cathedral churches of the realm; but the barns did not fly open at the bidding of the great enchanter. The Primate summoned a provincial Synod or Convocation of the Clergy, to meet in St. Paul's, London. The King sent an order warning the Synod against making any constitution which might infringe on his prerogative, or which might turn to “the disadvantage of us, our ministers, or any of our

England.
A.D. 1296

Parliament
at Bury.

Council at
St. Paul's.

^k The bull “Clericis Laicos,” apud Dupuy, *Preuves*, p. 14. In Raynaldus, sub ann. 1296, January, and Rymer, ii. 706.

faithful subjects."^m The majority of the Synod peremptorily refused all grant or concession. Upon this King Edward took the bold yet tenable ground, that those who would not contribute to the maintenance of the temporal power should not enjoy its protection; if they refused the obligations, they must abandon the rights of subjects. The whole clergy of the realm were declared by the Chief Justice on the Bench to be in a state of outlawry: they had no resort to the King's justice. Nor was this an idle menace. Officers were ordered to seize the best horses both of the secular and regular clergy: if they sought redress, the lawyers were forbidden to plead on their behalf: the King's courts were closed against them. They were now in a perilous and perplexing condition; they must either resist the King or the Pope. They felt the King's hand; the demand took the form not merely of a subsidy, but of a fine for the contumacious resistance to the King's authority. Yet the terrible anathemas of the Pope's Bull had hardly died away in their cathedrals. There was division among themselves. A great part of the clergy leaned towards the more prudent course, and empowered the Archbishop of York, the Bishops of Durham, Salisbury, and Ely to endeavour to effect a compromise.

They yield.

A fifth part of their revenue from estates and goods was set apart in some sanctuary or privileged place, to be drawn forth when required by the necessities of the Church or the kingdom. The Papal prohibition was thus, it was thought, eluded: the King, remaining judge of the necessity, cared not, provided he obtained the money.ⁿ The Primate, as though the

^m Spelman, *Concilia*, sub ann.

ⁿ Hemingford, 107, 108. Brady, Appendix, 10, 23. Westminster, ad ann. 1296. Collier, i. 491, &c.

shrine of Thomas à Becket spoke warning and encouragement (he knew, too, what Pope was on the throne), refused all submission, but he ^{Archbishop resists.} stood alone, and alone bore the penalty. His whole estate was seized to the King's use. The Archbishop had but the barren consolation of declaring the rest of the clergy to have incurred the Papal sentence of excommunication. He left the Synod with a solemn admonition to the other Prelates and clergy lest they should imperil their souls by criminal concession. On the other hand, the preaching Friars of the Order of St. Dominic, usually the unscrupulous assertors of the Papal power, appeared in St. Paul's, and offered publicly to maintain the doctrine, that in time of war it was lawful for the clergy to contribute to the necessities of the sovereign. Notwithstanding the Papal prohibition, the clergy at length yielded, and granted a fourth of their revenue. The Archbishop alone stood firm; but his lands were in the hands of the King's officers; himself an exile from the court. He retired with a single chaplain to a country parsonage, discharged the humble duties of a priest, and lived on the alms of his flock. Lincoln alone followed his conscientious example; Becket and Grostête had met together. But Lincoln had generously officious friends, who bought the King's pardon.

The war had now broken out; the King was about to leave the realm, and to embark for Flanders. ^{The King relents} It had been dangerous, if Edward should encounter any of the accidents of war, or be compelled to protracted absence, to leave his young son in the midst of a hostile clergy, and a people embittered by heavy exactions. Edward restored his barony to the Archbishop, and summoned him to attend a Parliament at

Westminster; the Archbishop stood by the side of the young Prince of Wales. The prudent King condescended to an apologetic tone. he lamented that the aggressions of his enemies in France and Scotland had compelled him reluctantly to lay these onerous burthens on his subjects. He was about to expose his life to the chances of war; if God should bless his arms with success, he promised to restore to his people the taxes which he had levied: if he should fall, he commended his young son and heir to their loyal love.^o The whole assembly was moved; the Archbishop melted into tears. Yet these soft emotions by no means blinded them to the advantage, offered by the occasion, of wresting from the King some further security for their liberties. The two charters, the Great Charter, and that of the Forests, were confirmed, and with them more specific guarantees obtained. All judgements given by the King's justices or ministers of the crown, contrary to the provisions of the charters, were declared null and void.^p The King commanded that the charters under his seal should be sent to all the cathedral churches in the realm, to be there kept and read in the hearing of the people twice every year. The Archbishops and Prelates at each reading were to declare all who violated these great national statutes by word, deed, or counsel, under actual sentence of excommunication. The Archbishops were to compel by distraint or otherwise the suffragan Prelates who should be remiss in the reiteration of the grave anathemas.^q

^o Westminster, sub ann. 1297. Hanningford, Knighton.

^p The Acts in Rymer.

^q The civil lawyers, as Sir Edward Coke, maintain that the clergy

here acted under the authority and command of the temporal power. High Churchmen, like Collier, insist that the bishops were consenting to the measure; that it

Thus the clergy of England, abandoning their own ground of ecclesiastical immunities, took shelter under the liberties of the realm. Of these liberties they constituted themselves the guardians; and so shrouded their own exemptions under the general right, now acknowledged, that the subject could not be taxed without his own consent. The Archbishop during the next year published an excommunication in which the rights of the clergy and of the people were blended with consummate skill. It condemned the King's officers who had seized the goods and imprisoned the persons of the clergy (perhaps for the arrears of the subsidy), and at the same time all who should have violated the charter. It re-asserted the immunity of all the King's subjects from taxation to which they had not given their assent. He thus obeyed the royal mandate, aimed a blow at the royal power, and asserted the special exemptions of the clergy.*

The famous Bull was received in France by the more violent and haughty Philip with still greater indignation; it struck at once at his pride, ^{Bull in France.} his power, and his cupidity. Philip, in his imperious taxation, had been embarrassed by none of the slow forms, the semblance at least of voluntary grant, to the observance of which the Great Charter, and now usage, had bound the King of England; and which, joined with their own peculiar exemptions, made it necessary that the contributions of the clergy should be voted as an aid, benevolence, or subsidy. Philip, of his sole will, had imposed the tax for the second time (the

was according to decrees of several provincial councils; that the penalties on refractory prelates were left to the spiritual authority of the archbishops. Compare Collier, i. p. 494.

* Westm. sub ann. 1298. Collier i. p. 495. Spelman, Concilia.

first was a hundredth of actual property, now a fiftieth), which passed under the detested name of *maltôte*: the harshness and extortion of his officers, who levied this charge, increased its unpopularity. At first it had been demanded of the merchants, then of all citizens, last of the clergy. But if the wrath of Philip was more vehement, his revenge was more cool and deliberate; it was a retaliation which bore the appearance of moderation, but struck the Popedom deep in the most vital and sensitive part. If the clergy might not be taxed for the exigencies of France, nor might in any way be tributary to the King, France would no longer be tributary to the Pope. From all the kingdoms of Western Christendom vast wealth was constantly flowing to Rome; every great promotion had to pay its fees, no cause could be evoked to Rome without large expenditure in Rome: no pilgrim visited the Eternal City unladen with precious gifts and offerings: the Pope claimed and not seldom had exercised the power of assessing the clergy, not merely for ordinary purposes, but for extraordinary exigencies which concerned the safety or the grandeur of the Pontificate. Philip issued an Ordinance,^a prohibiting in the most rigid and precise terms the exportation of gold or silver, either in ingots or in plate, of precious stones, of provisions, arms, horses, or munitions of war, of any article, indeed, of current value, without special permission sealed and delivered by the crown.^b

^a This edict, passed by the King in Parliament, had been preceded and was accompanied by another, prohibiting the entrance of all foreign merchants into the realm, under the strange plea that the internal trade of the country was carried on with sufficient activity by the natives of France. So well

indeed had Philip been served by his agents in Rome, that these prohibitory edicts almost, if not quite, anticipated the formal publication of the Papal bull in France.

^b The edict, Aug. 17, 1295. Sismondi has mistaken the republication of the bull "*Clericis Laicos*," Aug. 18

Thus, at one blow, Rome was deprived of all her supplies from France. The other Edict, which prohibited foreign trading in the land, proscribed the agents, the bankers, who transmitted in other ways the Papal revenues to Rome. Boniface had gone too far: but it was neither in his character, his station, nor in the interest of the hierarchy, to retract. Yet, he was still true to the old Guelfic policy, close alliance with France. He had espoused the cause of the French house of Anjou in Naples with ardour. As Pope, he no doubt contemplated with admiration that model of a Christian King, whom he was called upon by the almost adoring voice of Christendom to canonise, Saint Louis. The Empire, though now abased, might rally again, and resume its hostility; the Colonnas were not yet crushed; Ghibellinism not absolutely under his feet. He had, indeed, under the lofty character which he assumed of arbiter of the world, as the Supreme Pontiff, to whom lay resort against all Christian vassals as well as Sovereigns, received the appeal of the Count of Flanders against his liege Lord, Philip of France. Philip, jealous of the design of the Count of Flanders to marry his daughter to the heir of England, had summoned the Count and Countess with their daughter to Paris. They had been treacherously seized; the Count and Countess had escaped, or had been dismissed, but the daughter was kept as a hostage in the power of Philip, who bred her up with his own family. The Count of Flanders complained to the Pope of this injustice. The Pope had sent his Legate, the Bishop of Meaux, to demand

in France, for the original promulgation in January (*Hist. des Français*, viii. 516). Raynaldus and Dupuy place it in January. It was known in England early in the year. The Pope refers to it in his answer, as the cause of the King's hostile ordinance.

her liberation. The only answer was a lofty rebuke to the Pope for presuming to intermeddle with temporal affairs beyond his jurisdiction.*

Under these conflicting circumstances, Boniface issued his second Manifesto. Never was promulgated by the Papal court a Bull at once so inflexibly imperious, yet so bland; so disguising the haughtiness, the arrogance of a master, under the smooth and gentle language of a parent; so manifestly anxious to conciliate, yet so almost contemptuously offensive. Crimination, expostulation, menace, flattery, explanation bordering on apology, almost on concession, display the Pope as the proudest of mankind, yet for a moment conscious that he is addressing a monarch as proud as himself; determined to assert to the uttermost his immeasurable superiority, and yet modifying, tempering his demands: as the head of the Guelfs, reluctant to alienate the protector of the Guelfic interest. And he is still the head of the great Sacerdotal caste, determined to maintain that caste in its inviolable sanctity and power, and to yield up no letter of the pretensions of his haughtiest ancestors. All the acts of Kings, as moral acts, were under the immediate, indefeasible jurisdiction of the Pope. "The Church, by the ineffable love of her spouse, Christ, has received the dowry of many precious gifts, especially that great gift of liberty. Who shall presume against God and the Lord to infringe her liberty, and not be beaten down by the hammer of supreme power to dust and ashes? My son! turn not away thine ears from the voice of thy father; his parental language flows from the tenderness of his heart, though with some of the bitterness of past

The Bull
Sept. 1296

* Compare Dupuy and Baillet.

injuries." The Pope throws the whole blame on the King's evil counsellors. "Let him not permit them to change the throne of his glory into a seat of pestilence." "The King's Ordinance to forbid foreigners all traffic in the land, is not less impolitic than unjust. His subjects are oppressed with intolerable burthens; already their alienated loyalty has begun to decay, it will soon be altogether estranged; it is a grievous loss for a King to forfeit the love of his subjects." The Pope will not believe that the general prohibition against all persons quitting the realm, or exporting money or goods, can be intended to apply to ecclesiastics; this would be worse than impolitic, it would be insane. "Neither thou nor any secular prince hast the power to do this: by the very prohibition is incurred a sentence of excommunication." The Pope reminds the King of the intense anxiety with which he has devoted long days and sleepless nights to his interests; how he has laboured to preserve peace, sent his Cardinals to mediate. "Is this the return for the inestimable favours shown by the Church to you and your ancestors?" From the appeal to Philip's gratitude he passes to an appeal to Philip's fears. "Lift up your eyes and look around: the powerful Kings of the Romans, of England, of Spain are in league against you. Is this a time to add the Holy See to your enemies? Let not your insolent counsellors drive you to this fatal precipice! Call to mind the goodness of the Holy See, which you may thus compel to abandon you without succour. Call to mind the canonisation of your ancestor, Louis, whose miracles the Holy See has examined with assiduous care. Instead of securing, like him, her love, deserve not her indignation. What is the cause of all this? Our Constitution in defence of ecclesiastical liberty? That Constitution

asserted only the principles maintained by Popes and Councils; it added the awful penalties of excommunication, because men are more affected by the dread of punishment than by the love of virtue. Nor did we by that Constitution precisely ordain that the Prelates and clergy were not to contribute to the necessities of the King: but we declared that this was not to be done without our special permission, bearing in mind the insupportable exactions sometimes wrung from ecclesiastics by the King's officers under his authority. Not only do all divine and human laws, even judgements, attest the abuse of such authority, but the authority itself is absolutely interdicted; and this we have intimated for the perpetual memory of the truth. If you object that such permission has been petitioned for from the Holy See, and the petition has not been granted," if the realm were in danger, urgent and admitted, the Pope pledges himself to permit not only the levying of taxes, "but the crosses of gold and silver, even the consecrated vessels and furniture of the churches should be sacrificed, before a kingdom, so dear to the Apostolic See, should be exposed to peril." "The Constitution did not absolutely prohibit the King from exercising his rights over ecclesiastics who held fiefs of the crown, according to the laws and usages of the realm; but for himself, Boniface was prepared to lay down all, even his life, in defence of the liberties and immunities of the Church against all usurpers whatsoever." He charged the whole guilt of the war on the King of France; it arose from his unjust occupation of Burgundy, an undoubted fief of the Empire, and of Gascony, the inheritance of Edward of England, as Duke of Guienne. On the evils of war he enlarged: peril to the souls of men, the slaughter, the bottomless gulf of expenditure, the

damage, arising from the usurpations suggested by his evil counsellors. Those wrongs against the Kings of the Romans and of England were sins, therefore, undoubtedly under the jurisdiction of the Pope;* in such aggressions the Pope had full power of judgement. It was shameful for Philip to refuse the mediation, which had been accepted by the King of the Romans and the King of England. The Pope would not proceed at once to the last extremity; he would first attempt the ways of remonstrance and gentleness; and for this end he had sent the Bishop of Viviers to explain more fully his determination.⁷

The King of France promulgated an answer, full, not too long, but in language well considered, and of singular force and strength. This document ^{Answer of the King.} showed the progress of the human mind, and manifestly divulged the new power, that of the civil lawyers, whose style and phrases appear throughout. It began with the bold historic assertion, not only of the superior antiquity of the temporal to the spiritual power in Europe; but that before there were ecclesiastics in the world the Kings of France had the supreme guardianship of the realm, with full authority to enact all such ordinances as might be for the public weal. "The King, therefore, had prohibited the exportation of arms, provisions, and other things which might be turned to the advantage of his enemies." But this prohibition was not absolute (he turned the Pope's evasions on the Pope), "it required for such exportation the special licence of the King. Such licence would not have been refused to ecclesiastics, if they gave assurance that what they exported was

* "*Dumque in eos super his peccare seasserunt, de hoc judicium ad Sedem eandem non est dubium pertinere.*"

⁷ The document in Dupuy, &c.

their own property, and could not be applied to the damage of the realm." The King glanced with covert sarcasm at the partiality of the Pope. "That other most dear son of the Church (the King of England) had been allowed to seize the goods of the clergy, to imprison the clergy, and yet no excommunication had been pronounced against him." The proclamation proceeded daringly to grapple with the vital question. It denied the right of the clergy to the exclusive appellation of "the Church." The laity were as much members of Christ's mystical body as the clergy. The clergy had no special liberty; this was an usurpation on the common rights of all the faithful. The liberty which Christ had obtained belonged to the layman as well as to the ecclesiastic. "Did Christ die and rise again for the clergy alone?" There were, indeed, peculiar liberties, according to the Statutes of the Roman Pontiffs, but these had been granted or permitted by the Roman Emperors. "Such liberties, so granted or permitted, cannot take away the rights of Kings to provide, with the advice of their Parliament, all things necessary for the defence of the realm, according to the eternal rule: Render unto Cæsar the things that are Cæsar's. All alike, clerks and laymen, nobles and subjects, are bound to the common defence. Such charges are not to be called exactions, extortions, burthens. They are subsidies to the Sovereign for the general protection. The property of the Church in time of war is exposed to more than ordinary dangers. To refuse to contribute to the exigencies of the war, is to refuse due payment to your protectors."

"What wise and intelligent man is not in utter amazement when he hears the Vicar of Christ prohibiting and fulminating his anathema against contributions for the

defence of the realm, according to a fair equal rate, for the defence of the clergy themselves? They may give to stage-players; they have full and unbounded licence to lavish any expenditure, to the neglect of their churches, on their dress, their horses, their assemblies, their banquets, and all other secular pomps and pleasures. What sane men would forbid, under the sentence of anathema, that the clergy, crammed, fattened, swollen by the devotion of Princes, should assist the same Princes by aids and subsidies against the persecutions of their foes? Have they not the discernment to see that this inhibition, this refusal is little less than high treason, condemned by the laws of God and man? It is aiding and abetting the King's enemies, it is treachery to the defenders of the common weal. We, like our forefathers, have ever paid due reverence to God, to his Catholic Church, and his ministers, but we fear not the unjust and immeasurable threats of men." He proceeds to justify the war. "The King of England had refused allegiance for his fiefs held of the crown of France. Ample satisfaction, and fair terms of peace, had been offered to the King of the Romans." The county of Burgundy the King of France held by right of conquest in open war, after defiance and proclamation of hostilities by the King of the Romans himself. "We therefore ought no longer to be provoked by insults, but, as dutiful sons of the Church, to be looked upon with favour, and consoled in our dangers and distresses."*

The Pope thought it not prudent to contest these broad and bold principles of temporal supremacy; he was now involved in the internecine strife with the Co-

* Document in Dupuy.

lonnas. An address in a milder tone, in which protestations of regard and esteem predominated over the few lingering words of menace, declared that a more harsh, strict, and rigorous meaning than he had designed had been attributed by the malignity and cunning of evil counsellors to the Papal Bull. The Cardinal Legates, however, were commanded to raise all monies due to the Pope; and if the King's officers should interfere with their transmission, they were without hesitation or delay to pronounce sentence of excommunication against those officers.^a The Pope found himself deserted in France by his natural allies. In the Gallican Church, either national pride triumphed over the hierarchical spirit, or the clergy feared the King more than the Pope. The Archbishop of Rheims, with nothing of the stubborn boldness of Becket, or even the passive courage of Robert of Winchelsea, sent a strong though humble address to the Pope, expressing profound gratitude for his care of the ecclesiastical liberties, but acknowledging their obligations, both as feudatories of the King and as subjects, and their duty, in self-defence, to contribute to the public service: they deprecated the Pope's proceedings as disturbing the peace which happily prevailed between the Church of France and the King and Parliament of France.^b

For once the haughty Boniface listened to the admonitions of prudence. The King of France, by suspending for a time the operations of his hostile ordinance, gave the Pope an opportunity of withdrawing with less loss of dignity from his dangerous position. Another Bull appeared. "The author," it

Feb 7,
1297.

Conduct of
the French
clergy

Prudence of
Boniface.

^a Dupuy, Feb. 3.

^b Dupuy, p. 26.

declared, "of every law is the sole interpreter of that law;" and the interpretation which it now pleased Pope Boniface to give to his famous Bull, virtually abrogated it as regarded the kingdom of France. The King had full right to command the service of all his feudatories, whether holding secular or ecclesiastical fiefs: aids, benevolences, or loans might be granted, provided there was no exaction, only a friendly and gentle requisition from the King's courts. If the realm was in danger, equal taxes might be assessed on all alike; it was left to the conscience of the King, if of full age, during the King's nonage to the prelates, princes, dukes, and counts of the realm, to decide when the state was in danger.*

The successes of Philip the Fair in negotiation as well as in war, no doubt, if they did not awe the Pope, showed the danger as well as the ^{The war. 1297, 1298.} impolicy of alienating the old true ally of the Papedom, now rising to increased power and influence. For his dictatorial injunctions to make peace had been utterly disregarded by all parties; the truce, which he had ordered for two years, had not been observed for as many months.

It was a powerful league which had been organised by the lavish subsidies of England. It comprehended the King of the Romans, Guy Dampierre, Count of Flanders, who hoped to compel the King of France to release his daughter, the Count of Bar, the Duke of Brabant, the Counts of Hainault and Gueldres, the Bishops of Liège and Utrecht, the Archbishop of Cologne. The Counts of Auxerre, Montbelliard, and other nobles of that province engaged, on the receipt of

* Apud Dupuy, p. 39.

thirty thousand livres, to make a revolt in Burgundy. The more remote Counts of Savoy and Grandson were pledged to encourage and maintain this revolt. So utterly and almost contumeliously were the pacific views of the Pope disregarded in all quarters. But in the mean time Philip had won over the Duke of Bretagne from the English league. In all parts his subsidies counteracted those of England; subsidies on both sides largely drawn from the ecclesiastical revenues. He had entered Flanders. Charles of Valois had inflicted a severe defeat on the rebels, so the Flemings in the army of the Count Dampierre were called. The rich manufacturing cities, indignant at former attempts of their liege Lord, the Count of Flanders, to infringe their privileges, opened their gates to Philip as their Suzerain. The Count in vain attempted to retrace his steps; they would not trust him, and were at least indifferent to their change of masters.

Edward had at length disembarked to the relief of his overwhelmed ally.^a But the forces of the King of England were unequal to the contest. The war in defence of his foreign dominions had been unpopular in England. The English nobles, become more inflexibly insular in their feelings, had more than once refused to follow their monarch for the defence or reconquest of Gascony. In small numbers and with reluctance they had accompanied him to the Flemish shores. Edward's own military skill and vigour seemed to have deserted him: he was forced to abandon Bruges, which opened its gates to the conqueror. Ghent was hardly safe.^b

^a He embarked at Winchelsea, Aug. 22; landed at Sluys, 27, 1297. Rymer.

^b The war in the English and French historians; plainly and briefly in Rapin.

These unusual efforts had exhausted the resources of both kingdoms. The means of prosecuting the war could only be wrung by force from murmuring and refractory subjects, the clergy as well as the laity. There was a limit not only to the endurance, but to the possibility of raising new taxes, and that limit had been reached both in England and France.

At the close of the year the Kings consented to a short truce. News from England, during the suspension of arms, disconcerted the plans of ^{A.D. 1297.} Edward for the reorganisation in greater strength and activity of his wide-spread league. All Scotland was in revolt. Wallace, from a wild adventurer, at the head of a loose band of moss-troopers, had assumed, in a Parliament at Perth, the title of guardian of the realm and general of the armies of Scotland. Warenne, Earl of Surrey, Edward's Lieutenant, had been reduced to act on the defensive. The Scots were ravaging Cumberland and Westmoreland.

Boniface found these two haughty monarchs, who had so short a time before contemptuously spurned his mediation, one of them, if not imploring, making direct overtures in the most submissive terms for his interposition; the other accepting it with undisguised satisfaction. Edward despatched his ambassadors to Rome, the Archbishop of Dublin, the Bishop of Durham, the Count of Savoy, Sir Otho Grandison, Sir Hugh de Vere (the Bishop of Winchester was then at Rome), to request the arbitration of his Holiness.¹ The King of France was not averse to peace. He had gained fame, territory, power, and vengeance against some of his more dangerous and disaffected vassals. The Pope had al-

¹ New Rymer, p. 808. See the *Submissio Specialis*, p. 303.

ready, by abrogating or mitigating his obnoxious Bull as regarded France, by the solemn act of the canonisation of St. Louis, shown his disposition to return to the old Papal policy, close alliance with France. Philip acceded to the arbitration not of the Pope (for both monarchs endeavoured to save their honour and the independence of their realms, and to preclude a dangerous precedent), but of Boniface in his private character.⁵ Benedetto Gaetani was the appointed arbiter. This subtle distinction Boniface was wise enough to permit and to despise: the world saw the two great Kings at his feet, awaiting his award, and in that award the full virtual recognition of the Papal arbitration. The contested territories could be sequestered, as they were for a time, only into the hands of the Pope's officers, not those of Benedetto Gaetani.

The extraordinary despatch with which this important treaty was framed, the equity of its provisions. the unreserved, if on one side angry and reluctant, assent of the contending parties,⁶ could not but raise the general opinion of the Papal authority. Ere long the King of France had acquiesced in the decree.⁷ The treaty seemed to aim at the establishment of lasting peace between the two rival powers by a double mar-

⁵ As regards France, this condition may appear the subtle and provident invention of the lawyers. They would not admit, even in terms, that superiority which the See of Rome grounded on precedents as feudal lord of England, Scotland, Sicily, Arragon, Hungary; nor even that more vague superiority over the King of Germany, as King of the Romans and claimant of the empire.

⁶ The agreement was signed at Rome, June 14, 1298. The instrument in

Rymer is dated June 27. The tone of the King of England is far more submissive than that of the King of France. Compare the two documents in Rymer. The nobles of Burgundy, the allies of Edward, Montbelliard, D'Ailly, Montfaucon, sent ambassadors to represent them in the treaty. The Count of Flanders and Edward's other continental allies acceded to the arbitration of Benedetto Gaetani.

⁷ See p. 101.

riage between the houses, that of Edward himself with Margaret the sister, of the younger Edward with Isabella, daughter of the King of France.* But so completely was the Pope inseparable from Benedetto Gaetani, that the penalty imposed, in case either monarch should not fulfil the terms of these marriage contracts, was an Interdict to be laid on their territories. Restitution was to be made on either side of all lands, vessels, merchandise, or goods, still subsisting; compensation according to the same arbitration for those destroyed or damaged during the war. Edward was to receive back, if not wholly, in great part, his fiefs in France, on condition of homage and fealty to his liege Lord; and the Pope became security against his future rebellion. In the mean time till the boundaries could be settled, and all questions of jurisdiction brought to issue, those territories were to be surrendered to the Pope's officers, to be held by the Pope until the final termination of all differences. The arbitration of Benedetto Gaetani was pronounced in full Synod at Rome in the presence of the Cardinals, the Apostolic Notaries, and all the functionaries of the Papal Court. According to the terms of the arbitration, the Bishop of Vicenza took possession in the Pope's name of the province of Guienne.

This was not the only quarrel in which the Pope was invited to take the part of arbiter. The insurgent Scots had recourse to the protection of the Papal See against the tyrannous usurpation of Edward. Their claim to this protection rested not on the general function and

* The Pope annulled all the engagements, obligations, and oaths entered into by Edward to marry his son to the daughter of the Count of Flanders—*Rymer* p. 188.

duty of the Head of the Christian Church to interpose his good offices in defence of the oppressed, for the maintenance of justice, and the preservation of Christian peace. They appealed to the Pope as their acknowledged liege Lord. Scotland, they said, was a fief of the Church of Rome, and had a right to demand aid against the invader not only of their liberties, but of the Pope's rights. The origin of this claim is obscure, but it was not now heard for the first time. Nor did it seem to rest on the vague and general pretensions of the Pope to the sovereignty over all islands.^m

Already, before this appeal had been publicly received at Rome, Boniface, in the character which he assumed of Pacificator of Christendom, and on the strength of the treaty concluded under his arbitration between France and England, had admonished King Edward not to prosecute the war against the Scots. Edward took no notice of this admonition. His first campaign at the head of the knighthood of England had ended with the total defeat of Wallace, who became again a wandering and almost solitary adventurer. But though he could vanquish, the King of England could not keep possession of the poor territory; and at the close of the campaign most of his forces dispersed and returned to their English homes. A new government had been formed. William Lamberton, Bishop of St. Andrew's, Robert Bruce, and John Comyn proclaimed themselves

^m Compare Lingard's note, vol. iii. c. 8, in which he clearly shows that it had been asserted on more than one occasion. In the MS., B. M., appears this singular ground for the title: *tudo, qualiter regnum ipsum per beati Andree Apostoli venerandas reliquias, non sine superni Dei dono, acquisitum et conversum extitit ad fidei Catholicorum unitatem.*—Vol. xiv. p. 53, June 27 1290.

a Regency in the name of John Baliol, who, though in an English prison, was still held to be the rightful sovereign. Edward's marriage with Margaret of France, the time necessary to reorganise his army, the refusal of the English barons to invade Scotland during the winter, gave the Regency so much leisure to recover their strength, that they ventured to lay siege to the castle of Stirling. But their main hope was in the intervention of the Pope; and the Pope appeared to take up their cause with a vigour, as it were, flushed by the recent submission of Edward. His Bull June 27, 1298 addressed to the King of England spoke almost the words of the Ambassador of Scotland. It declared that the kingdom of Scotland had belonged in full right to the Church of Rome: that it neither was nor ever had been a fief of the King of England, or of his ancestors. It discussed and disdainfully threw aside all the pretensions of feudal suzerainty adduced by the King of England. It commanded him instantly to release the Bishop of Glasgow, the Bishop of Sodor, and other Scottish ecclesiastics whom he kept in prison; to surrender the castles, and still more the monasteries and religious houses, which he presumed to hold to their damage, in some places to their utter ruin, in the realm of Scotland; to send his Ambassadors within six months to Rome to receive the Pope's determination on all differences between himself and the kingdom of Scotland.

Edward was compelled for a time to dissemble his indignation at this imperious summons. The Bull, to ensure its service upon the King, had been committed to Winchelsea, Archbishop of Canterbury. The Primate was commanded, in virtue of his obedience to the Pope, without delay to present this mandate to the King, and

use all his authority to induce the King to immediate and unreserved compliance.^a

At this time all civil and religious affairs were suspended; all thoughts swallowed up, by the great religious movement which, at the close of the century, began in Italy and rapidly drew all Western Christendom within its whirlpool, a vast peaceful Crusade, to Rome not to Jerusalem, by which the spiritual advantages of that remote and armed and perilous pilgrimage were to be attained at much less cost, exertion, and danger. To the calm and philosophic mind the termination of a centenary period in the history of man is an epoch which cannot be contemplated without awe and seriousness; in those ages awe and seriousness were inseparable from profound, if passionate and unreasoning religion. It is impossible to determine whether a skilful impulse from Rome and from the clergy first kindled this access of fervent devotion. At this period, when Christendom was either seized or inspired with this paroxysm of faith, Palestine was irrecoverably lost: the unbelievers were in undisturbed possession of the sepulchre of Christ. But the tombs of the Apostles, of Peter and of Paul, next to that of the Redeemer, the most sacred, and hallowed by their

^a There is great difficulty about the dates in this affair. The bull and the letter to Winchelsea are dated June, 1299. The Parliament of Lincoln was summoned Sept. 27, 1300; met in 1301. Lingard supposes that the bull, which was only delivered by Winchelsea to the King in Aug. 1300, had been withheld by some *unaccountable* delay from reaching Winchelsea till towards June 1300. We might perhaps suppose that the jubilee, in its preparations, and in the necessary arrangements, absorbed all the time of the Roman court, and altogether pre-occupying the public mind, superseded all other business. But, from the haughty tone and almost menace of the Papal letters to Winchelsea (MS., B. M.), there seems to have been some timid reluctance or delay on the part of the primate.

venerable and unquestioned reliques, were accessible to all the West. The plenary Indulgences, which had been so lavishly bestowed in the early period of the Crusades, and might, even in the decay of the Crusading passion, be obtained by the desperate and world-weary votary, were not now coveted with less ardour. Would the Church withhold on more easy terms those precious and consolatory privileges for which the world was content to pay by such prodigal oblations, and which were thus the source of inexhaustible power and wealth to the clergy? Christendom was now almost at peace; the Pope's treaty had been respected by France and England, and by their respective allies. Germany reposed under the doubtful supremacy of Albert of Austria. The north of Italy was in outward at least and unwonted peace: the industrious and flourishing republics, the commercial and maritime cities were overflowing with riches, and ready with their lavish tribute.

Already on the first of January of the great centenary year, even before, on the Nativity (1299), the Churches of Rome, it might seem, from a natural, spontaneous, unsuggested, and therefore heaven-inspired thought (the movement was the stronger because no one knew how and where it began), were thronged with thousands supplicating, almost imperiously demanding, what they had been taught or believed to be the customary Indulgences of the season. The most humbly-religious Pope might have rejoiced at that august spectacle of Christendom thus crowding to offer its homage on the tombs of the Apostles, acknowledging Rome as the religious centre of the world, and coming under the personal benediction of the Roman Pontiff. The venerable image of the successor of St. Peter, thus planted in the hearts

of so many, who would return home not passive slaves only but ardent assertors of the Papal supremacy, not subjects only but worshippers; the tribute lavished upon the altars—these might be but secondary considerations. Ambition, pride, and avarice might stand rebuked before nobler, more holy sentiments. Which predominated in the heart of Boniface VIII., shall history, written by human hand, presume to say? If both or either intruded on his serene contemplation of this triumph of the religious element in man, was it the more high and generous, or the more low and sordid? was it haughtiness or rapacity? Assuredly the sagacity of Boniface could not refuse to discern the immediate, and to foresee the remoter consequences of this ceremony: he could not close his eyes on the myriads at his feet: he could not refuse to hear the amount of the treasures which loaded the altars.

The court of Rome, in its solemn respect for precedent, affected to require the sanction of ancient usage for the institution of the Holy year. The Mosaic Law offered its Jubilee, the tradition of the secular games at Rome might lurk to this time, at least among the learned, very probably in the habits and customs of the people. The Church had never disdained, rather had avowed, the policy of turning to her own good ends the old Pagan usages. Grave inquiry was instituted. The Cardinal Stefaneschi, the poet-historian, was employed to search the archives: the College of Cardinals was duly consulted. At length the Pope himself ascended the pulpit in St. Peter's. The church was splendidly hung with rich tapestries; it was crowded with eager votaries. After his sermon the

The Bull.

Pope unfolded the Bull, which proclaimed the welcome Indulgences, sealed with the pontifical seal. The Bull was immediately promulgated:

it asserted the ancient usage of Indulgences to all who should make pilgrimage to the tomb of the "Chief of the Apostles." The Pope, in his solicitude for the souls of men, by his plenary power, gave to all who during the year should visit once a day the Churches of the Apostles, the Romans for thirty days, strangers for fifteen, and should have repented and confessed, full absolution of all their sins.

All Europe was in a phrensy of religious zeal. Throughout the year the roads in the remotest parts of Germany, Hungary, Britain, ^{Pilgrims.} were crowded with pilgrims of all ages, of both sexes. A Savoyard above one hundred years old determined to see the tombs of the Apostles before he died. There were at times two hundred thousand strangers at Rome. During the year (no doubt the calculations were loose and vague) the city was visited by millions of pilgrims. At one time, so vast was the press both within and without the walls, that openings were broken for ingress and egress. Many people were trampled down, and perished by suffocation. The Papal authorities had taken the wisest and most effective measures against famine for such accumulating multitudes. It was a year of abundant harvest; the territories of Rome and Naples furnished large supplies. Lodgings were exorbitantly dear, forage scarce; but the ordinary food of man, bread, meat, wine, and fish, was sold in great plenty and at moderate prices. The oblations were beyond calculation. It is reported by an eye-witness that two priests stood with rakes in their hands sweeping the uncounted gold and silver from the altars. Nor was this tribute, like offerings or subsidies for Crusades, to be devoted to special uses, the accoutrements, provisions, freight of armies. It was entirely at the free and

irresponsible disposal of the Pope. Christendom of its own accord was heaping at the Pope's feet this extraordinary custom :^{*} and receiving back the gift of pardon and everlasting life.

But from this great act of amnesty to the whole of Christendom were sternly excluded the enemies of Boniface—the rebels, as they were proclaimed, against the See of Rome—Frederick of Arragon and the Sicilians, the Colonnas, and all who harboured them.

* Stefaneschi, Villani, *Istorie Fiorent.* viii. 36 Ventura. After all, this mode of collecting does not, with the explanation of the Cardinal-poet, necessarily imply a contribution so very enormous. The text of Stefaneschi is unfortunately imperfect. He seems to say that the usual annual offerings on the tombs of the Apostles amounted to 30,000 florins; this year to 50,000 more, chiefly in small coins of all countries. Many were too poor to make any offering. The Cardinal contrasts the conduct of these humble votaries with that of the kings, who, unlike the Three of old, so munificent at the feet of the infant Jesus, were parsimonious in their offerings to Jesus at the right hand of the Father. "Instead of this,

they seize the titles of the churches bestowed by their generous ancestors, whose glory becomes their shame." Villani, himself a pilgrim (did the rich Florentines pay handsomely?), notes the vast wealth gained by the Romans as well as by the Church, according to his strong expression, almost all Christendom went. Villani drew his historic inspiration from his pilgrimage. His admiration of the great and ancient monuments of Rome, recorded by Virgil, Sallust, Lucan, Titus Livius, Valerius, and Orosius, led him, an unworthy disciple, to attempt to write history in their style. Villani is far from Livy, or even Sallust; but he might hold his own before Valerius and Orosius.

CHAPTER IX.

Boniface VIII. His Fall.

THIS centenary year, illustrated by the splendid festival of the Jubilee, and this homage and tribute paid by several millions of worshippers to the representative of St. Peter, was the zenith of the fame and power of Boniface VIII., perhaps of the Roman Pontificate. So far his immeasurable pretensions, if they had encountered resistance, had suffered no humiliating rebuke. Christendom might seem, by its submission, as if conspiring to intoxicate all his ruling passions, to tempt his ambition, to swell his pride, to glut his rapacity. The Colonnas, his redoubted enemies, were crushed; they were exiles in distant lands; it might seem superfluous hatred to confer on them the distinction of exclusion from the benefits of the Jubilee. Sicily, he might hope, would not long continue her unfilial rebellion. Roger Loria, now on the Angevine side, had gained one of his famous victories over the Arragonese fleet. Already Boniface had determined in his mind that great, though eventually fatal scheme by which Charles of Valois, who in the plains of Flanders had gained distinguished repute in arms, should descend the Alps as the soldier of the Pope, and terminate at once the obstinate war. Sicily reduced, Charles of Valois, married to the heiress of the Latin Emperor Baldwin, was to win back the imperial throne of Constantinople to the dominion of the West, and to its spiritual alle-

giance under the Roman See. Boniface had interposed to regulate the succession to the crown of Hungary: Hungary had received a king at his bidding.* The King of the Romans, Albert of Austria, was under his ban as a rebel, and even as the murderer, so he was denounced, of his sovereign, Adolph of Nassau. Absolution for these crimes could only be given by the Pope himself, and Albert would doubtless purchase at any price that spiritual pardon without which his throne trembled under him. The two mighty Kings of France and England, who once spurned, had now been reduced to accept his mediation. He held, as arbiter, the province of Guienne. Scotland, to escape English rule, had declared herself a fief of the Apostolic See. Edward had not yet ventured to treat with scorn the strange demand of implicit submission, in all differences between himself and the Scots, to the Papal judgement. The embers of that fatal controversy between the King of France and Boniface, which were hereafter to blaze out into such ruinous conflagration, were smouldering unregarded, and to all seeming entirely extinguished. Philip, the brother of Charles of Valois, might appear the dearest and most obedient son of the Church.

But even at this time, in the depths and on the heights of the Christian world, influences were at work not only about to become fatal to the worldly grandeur of Boniface and to his life, but to his fame to the latest ages. Boniface was hated with a sincerity and intensity of hatred which, if it darkened, cannot be rejected as a witness against his vices, his overweening arrogance, his treachery, his avidity.

The Franciscans throughout Christendom, more espe-

* Mallath, *Geschichte der Magyaren*, t. 1. p. 5, *et seqq.*

cially in Italy, had the strongest hold on the popular mind. Their brotherhood was vigorous enough not to be weakened by the great internal schism which had begun to manifest itself from their foundation.^b But to both the factions in this powerful order, up to near this time among the vehement and passionate teachers of the humblest submission to the Papacy, the present Pontiff was equally odious. In all lands the Franciscans were followed and embarrassed by the insoluble interminable question, the possession of property, a question hereafter to be even more fiercely agitated. How could the Franciscans not yield to the temptation of the wealth which, as formerly with other Orders, the devotion of mankind now cast at their feet? The inveterate feeling of the possibility of propitiating the Deity by munificent gifts, of atoning for a life of violence and guilt by the lavish donation or bequest, made it difficult for those who held dominion over men's minds as spiritual counsellors, to refuse to accept as stewards, to be the receivers, as it were, for God, of those oblations, ever more frequent and splendid according to the depth and energy of the religious impressions which they had awakened. From stewards to become owners; from dispensers or trustees, and sometimes vendors of lands or goods bequeathed to pious uses, in order to distribute the proceeds among the poor or on religious edifices, to be the lords, and so, as they might fondly delude themselves, the more prudent and economic managers of such estates, was but an easy and unperceived transition. Hence, if not from more sordid causes, in defiance of the vow of absolute poverty, the primal law of the society,

^b See back the succession of Generals, Elias, Crescentius, John of Parma, Bonaventura, vol. vi. p. 350.

the Franciscans now vied in wealth with the older and less rigorous orders.* Mendicancy, their vital principle, had long ceased to be content with the scanty boon of hard fare and coarse clothing; it grasped at lands and the cost at least of splendid buildings. But the stern and inflexible statute of the order stood in their way; the Pope alone could annul that primary disqualification to hold lands and other property. To abrogate this inconvenient rule, to enlarge the narrow vow, had now become the aim of the most powerful, and, because most powerful, most wealthy Minorites. But Boniface was inexorable. On the Franciscans of England he practised a most unworthy fraud; and, bound together as the Order was throughout Christendom, such an act would produce its effect throughout the whole republic of the Minorites. The crafty avarice of the Pope was too much for the simple avarice of the Order. They offered to deposit forty thousand ducats with certain bankers, as the price of the Papal permission to hold lands. The Pope appeared to listen favourably till the money was in the bankers' hands. He then discovered that the concession was in direct opposition to the fundamental laws of the Order, and to the will of the seraphic Francis; but as they could not hold property, the property in the bankers' hands could not be theirs. He absolved the bankers from their obligation to repay the Franciscans, and seized for his proper use the unowned treasures. It was a bold and desperate measure, even in a Pope, a Pope with the power and authority of Boniface, to estrange the loyalty of the Minorites, dispersed, but in strict union, throughout the world, and

* Westminster says that it was rumoured that the Statute of Mortmain was chiefly aimed at restraining the avarice of the Franciscans.—v. p. 495.

now in command not merely of the popular mind, but of the profoundest theology of the age.

But if the higher Franciscans might thus be disposed to taunt the rapacity of Boniface, which had baffled their own, and throughout the Order might prevail a brooding and unavowed hostility to the intractable Pontiff; it was worse among the lower Franciscans, who had begun to draw off into a separate and inimical community. These were already under dark suspicions of heresy, and of belief in prophecies (hereafter to be more fully shown^a), no less hostile to the whole hierarchical system than the tenets of the Albigensians, or of the followers of Peter Waldo. To them Boniface was, if not the Antichrist, hardly less an object of devout abhorrence. To the Fraticelli, Coelestine was ever the model Pope. The Coelestinians had either blended with the Fraticelli, or were bound to them by the closest sympathies. With them, Boniface was still an usurper who disgraced the throne which he had obtained through lawless craft and violence, by the maintenance of an iniquitous, unchristian system, a system implacably irreconcilable with Apostolic poverty, and therefore with Apostolic faith. The Fraticelli, or Coelestinians, as has been seen, had their poet; and perhaps the rude rhymes of Jacopone da Todi, to the tunes and in the rhythm of much of the popular hymnology, sounded more powerfully in the ears of men, stirred with no less fire the hearts of his simpler hearers, than in later days the sublime *terzains* of Dante. Jacopone da Todi was a lawyer; of a gay and jovial life. His wife, of exquisite beauty and of noble

^a We must await the pontificate of John XXII. for the full development of their tenets.

birth, was deeply religious. During a solemn festival in the church, she fell on the pavement from a scaffold. Jacopone rushed to loosen her dress; the dying woman struggled with more than feminine modesty; she was found swathed in the coarsest sackcloth. Jacopone at once renounced the world, and became a Franciscan tertiary; in the rigour of his asceticism, in the sternness of his opinions, a true brother of the most extreme of the Fraticelli. We have heard Jacopone admonish Coelestine: his rude verse was no less bold against Boniface.*

Boniface pursued the Fraticelli, whose dangerous doctrines his well-informed sagacity could not but follow out to their inevitable conclusions,^f even if they had not yet announced that coming reign of the Holy Spirit which was to supersede and sweep away all the hierarchy. He could hardly be ignorant of their menacing prophecies. He cut off at once this rebellious branch from the body of the faithful, and denounced them as obstinate irreclaimable heretics.^g Jacopone, not without cause (he had been the secretary in that league of the Colonnas and the ecclesiastics of France), became an object of persecution; that persecution, as usual, only gave him the honour and increasing influence of a

* A poem has disappeared from the later editions:—

"O Papa Bonifazio
Molto hai giocato al mondo,
Penso che giocando
Non te parria partire."

This is genuine Jacopone. Two stanzas, alluding to the scene at Anagni, seem of a more doubtful hand.—Note to the German translation of Ozanam on the Religious Poets of Italy, by Dr. Julius, p. 188.

^f Compare Ferretus Vicentinus, end of second book, character of Boniface.

^g On the Fraticelli, Raynaldus, p. 240. In the bull of Boniface against them, he is extremely indignant at their apostacy. They averred "*quod tempore interdicti melius quam alio tempore sit eisdem, et quod propter excommunicationem cibus non minus sapidus sit temporalis, nec minus bene dormiunt propterea.*"—p. 242.

martyr; his verses were hardly less bold, and were more endeared to the passions, and sunk deeper into the hearts of men.^h

A Pope of a Ghibelline family, an apostate, as he was justly or unjustly thought, who had carried Guelfism to an unprecedented height of arrogance, and enforced its triumph with remorseless severity, centred of course on himself the detestation of all true Ghibellines. He had trampled down, but not exterminated, the Colonnas; their dispersion, if less dangerous to his power, was more dangerous to his fame. Wherever they went they spread the most hateful stories of his pride, perfidy, cruelty, avarice, so that even now we cannot discriminate darkened truth from baseless calumny. The greedy ears of the Ghibellines throughout Italy, of his enemies throughout Christendom, drank in and gave further currency to these sinister and rankling antipathies.

But the measure by which Boniface hoped almost to exterminate Ghibellinism, by placing on the throne of Naples a powerful monarch, instead of the feeble representative of the old Angevine line, thus wresting Sicily for ever from the house of Arragon, and so putting an end to the war, was most disastrous to his peace and to his fame. The invitation of Charles of Valois to be the soldier, protector, ally of the Pope, ended in revolting half Italy, while it had not the slightest effect in mitigating the subsequent fatal collision with France. Had Charles of Valois never trampled on the liberties of Florence, Dante

^h There is to my ear a bitter and insulting tone in the two satires written from his prison, in which he seems to wapplicate, and at the same time to treat the Papal absolution as indifferent to one so full as he was of hatred of himself and love of Christ.—Satire xvii. xix.

might never have fallen off to Ghibellinism; he might have been silent of the fate of Boniface in hell. Hardly had Charles of Valois descended into Italy, when Boniface could not disguise to himself that he had introduced a master instead of a vassal. The haughty Frenchman paid as little respect, in his inordinate ambition, to the counsels, admonitions, remonstrances of the Pope, as to the liberties of the Italian people, or the laws of justice, humanity, or good faith. The summary of Charles of Valois' expedition into Italy, the expedition of the lieutenant and peacemaker of the Pope, was contained in that sarcastic sentence alluded to above, "He came to establish peace in Tuscany, and left war; he went to Sicily to wage war, and made a disgraceful peace." Through Charles of Valois the Pope became an object of execration in Florence, of mistrust and hatred throughout Italy; the anathematised Frederick obtained full possession of Sicily for his life, and as much longer as his descendants could hold it.¹ It were perhaps hard to determine which of the two brothers shook the power, and made the name of Boniface more odious to mankind, his friend and ally Charles of Valois, or his foe Philip the Fair.

The arrogant interposition of the Pope in the affairs of Scotland was rejected, not only by the King of England, but by the English nation. The Parliament of Lincoln met at Lincoln. There assembled one hundred and four of the greatest barons of the realm, among the first, Bohun, Earl of Hereford, and Bigod, Earl of Norfolk,^k whose bold opposition had compelled

¹ See before, p. 22.

^k It was Bigod who refused to attend the King as Earl Marshal to Flanders. "By the everlasting God,"

said Edward, "Sir Earl, you shall go or hang." "By the everlasting God," answered Bigod, "I will neither go nor hang."

the King to sign the two charters, with additional securities for the protection of the subject against the power of the Crown; they had joined with the Archbishop to resist the exactions of the King. The Universities sent their most distinguished doctors of civil law; the monasteries had been ordered to furnish all documents which could throw light on the controversy. The answer to the Pope's Bull, agreed on after some discussion, was signed by all the Nobles. It expressed the amazement of the Lords in Parliament at the unheard-of pretensions advanced in the Papal Bull, asserted the immemorial supremacy of the King of England over the King of Scotland in the times of the Britons and of the Saxons. Scotland had never paid feudal allegiance to the Church. The King of England is in no way accountable or amenable to the jurisdiction of the Pope for his rights over the kingdom of Scotland; he must not permit those rights to be called in question. It would be a disinheritation of the crown of England and of the royal dignity, a subversion of the state of England, if the King should appear by his proctors or ambassadors to plead on those rights in the Court of Rome; an infringement of the ancient liberties, customs, and laws of the realm, "to the maintenance of which we are bound by a solemn oath, and which by God's grace we will maintain to the utmost of our power, and with our whole strength. We neither permit, nor will we permit (we have neither the will nor the power to do so) our Lord the King, even if he should so design, to comply, or attempt compliance, with demands so unprecedented, so unlawful, so prejudicial, so unheard of. Wherefore we humbly and earnestly beseech your Holiness to leave our King, a true Catholic, and devotedly attached to the Church of Rome, in peaceful

and undisturbed possession of all his rights, liberties, customs, and laws." ^m

King Edward, however, to quiet the conscience of the Pope, not, as he distinctly declared, as submitting to his judgement, condescended to make a full and elaborate statement of his title to the homage of Scotland, in a document which seemed to presume on the ignorance or credulity of his Holiness as to the history of England and of the world, with boldness only equalled by the counter-statements of the Scottish Regency. It is a singular illustration of the state of human knowledge when poetry and history are one, when the mythic and historic have the same authority even as to grave legal claims, and questions affecting the destinies of nations.

The origin of the King of England's supremacy over Scotland mounts almost to immemorial antiquity. Brute, the Trojan, in the days of Eli and Samuel, conquered the island of Albion from the Giants. He divided it among his three sons, Lochrine, Albanact, and Camber. Albanact was slain in battle by a foreign invader, Humber. Lochrine avenged his death, slew the usurper, who was drowned in the river which took his name, and subjected the realm of Albanact (Scotland) to that of Britain. Of the two sons of Dunwallo, King of Britain, Belinus and Brennus, Belinus received the kingdom of Britain, Brennus that of Scotland, under his brother, according to the Trojan law of primogeniture. King Arthur bestowed the kingdom of Scotland on Angusil, who bore Arthur's sword before him in sign of fealty. So, throughout the Saxon race, almost every famous King, from Athelstan to Edward the Confessor, had either appointed Kings of

Claims of
England.

^m Rymer, dated Feb. 12, 1301.

Scotland or received homage from them. The Normans exercised the same supremacy, from William the Conqueror to King Edward's father, Henry III. The King dauntlessly relates acts of submission and fealty from all the Scottish Kings. He concludes this long and laboured manifesto with the assertion of his full, absolute, indefeasible title to the kingdom of Scotland, as well in right of property as of possession; and that he will neither do any act, nor give any security, which will in the least derogate from that right and that possession.

The Pope received this extraordinary statement with consummate solemnity. He handed it over to Baldred Basset, the Envoy of the Scottish Regency. In due time appeared the answer, which, with the same grave unsuspectingness, meets the King on his own ground. The Scots had their legend, which for this purpose becomes equally authentic history. They deny not Brute or his conquest; but they hold their independent descent from Scota, the daughter of Pharaoh, King of Egypt, who sojourned at Athens and subdued Ireland. Her sons conquered Scotland from the degenerate race of Brute. The Saxon supremacy, if there were such supremacy, is no precedent for Edward, a descendant of Norman kings. No act of homage was ever performed to them by any King of Scotland, but by William the Lion, and that for lands held within the kingdom of England. They assert the absolute jurisdiction of the court of Rome. Edward, did he not mistrust his cause, could not decline that just and infallible tribunal. Scotland is, and ever has been, an allodial fief, an inalienable possession of the Church of Rome. It was contained in the universal grant of Constantine the Emperor,

of all islands in the ocean to the successors of St. Peter.^a

But these more remote controversies were now to be drowned in the din of that absorbing strife, on which Christendom gazed in silent amazement, the quarrel between the Pope and the King of France. Boniface must descend from his tranquil eminence, as dictator of peace, as arbiter between contending Kings, to a long furious altercation of royal Edicts and Papal Bulls, in which, if not all respect for the Roman See, at least for himself, was thrown aside; in which, if not his life, his power and his personal liberty were openly menaced; in which on his side he threatened to excommunicate, to depose by some powerful league the greatest monarch in Europe, and was himself summoned to appear before a General Council to answer for the most monstrous crimes. The strife closed with his seizure in his own palace, and in his hastened death.

As this strife with France became more violent, the King of England, whom each party would fear to offend, calmly pursued his plans of security and aggrandisement. The rights of the Roman See to the fief of Scotland quietly sunk into oblivion; the liberties of the oppressed Scots ceased to awaken the sympathies of their spiritual vindicator. The change in the views of the Pope was complete; his inactivity in the cause of the Scots grew into indirect support of the King of England. In an extant Bull he reproves the Archbishop of Glasgow and other Prelates of Scotland, for their obstinate maintenance of an unnatural rebellion: he treats them as acting unworthily of their

Quarrel with France.
The Pope and the King abandon their ally

^a Rymer. On the Scotch plea, compare Fordun, Scoti Chronicon.

holy calling, and threatens them with condign censure those very Prelates for whose imprisonment he had condemned the King of England.^a

Nor was Philip less disposed to abandon the Scottish insurgents to their fate. After obtaining for them the short truce of Angers, he no longer interposed in their behalf. There might almost seem a tacit understanding between the Kings. Edward, in like manner, forgot his faithful ally the Count of Flanders, who was confined in a French prison as a rebellious vassal. He did not insist on his liberation, it does not appear that he even remonstrated against this humiliating wrong.

The quarrel between Boniface VIII. and Philip the Fair is one of the great epochs in the Papal history, the turning point after which, for a time at least, the Papacy sank with a swift and precipitate descent, and from which it never rose again to the same commanding height. This quarrel led rapidly, if not directly and immediately, to that debasing period which has been called the Babylonian captivity of the Popes in Avignon, during which they became not much more than the slaves of the Kings of France. It was the strife of the two proudest, hardest, and least conciliatory of men, in defence of the two most stubbornly irreconcilable principles which could be brought into collision, with everything to exasperate, nothing to avert, to break, or to mitigate the shock.

The causes which led more immediately to this disastrous discord seem petty and insignificant; but when two violent, ambitious, and unyielding men are opposed, each strenuous in the assertion of incompatible claims, small causes provoke and irritate the feud, more perhaps

^a Rymer.

than some one great object of contest. The clergy of France had many grievances, complained of many usurpations on the part of Philip, his family, and his officers, which were duly brought before the Papal court. The Bishop of Laon had been suspended from his spiritual functions by the Pope; he was cited to Rome. The King sequestered and took possession of the lands and goods as of a vacant See. John, Cardinal of S. Cecilia, had devised certain estates which he held in France for the endowment of a college for poor clerks in Paris. Philip, it is not known on what plea, seized the lands, and refused to restore them, though admonished by the Pope. Robert of Artois, the King's brother, claimed against the Bishop part of the city of Cambray: he continued to hold it in defiance of the Papal censure. The Archbishop of Rheims complained that his estates, sequestered by the King for his own use during the vacancy of the See, had not been fully restored to the Archiepiscopate. The Archbishop of Narbonne was involved in two disputes, one with the Viscount of that city, who claimed to hold his castle in Narbonne of the King, not of the Archbishop, who had received, as was asserted on the other hand, the homage and fealty of his father. A Council was held at Beziers on the subject: and an appeal made to Paris. The second feud related to the district of Maguelone, which the officers of St. Louis had usurped from the See of Narbonne; but on an appeal to Clement IV., it had been ceded back to the Church. The officers of Philip were again in possession of Maguelone. On this subject came a strong, but not intemperate remonstrance from the Pope, yet in which might be heard the first faint murmurs of the brooding storm. The Pope naturally set before the King the example of his pious and sainted

grandsire Louis. That canonisation is always represented as an act of condescending favour, not as a right extorted by the unquestioned virtues and acknowledged miracles of St. Louis; and as binding the kingdom of France, especially his descendants on the throne, in an irredeemable debt of gratitude to the Holy See. "The Pope cannot overlook such aggressions as those of the King on the rights of the Archbishop of Narbonne without incurring the blame of dumb dogs, who dare not bark;" he warns the King against the false prophets with honeyed lips, the evil counsellors, the extent of whose fatal influence he already, no doubt, dimly foresaw, the lawyers, on whom the King depended in all his acts, whether for the maintenance of his own rights, or the usurpation of those of others.

As yet there was no open breach. No doubt the recollection of the former feud rankled in the hearts of both. The unmeasured pretensions of the Pope in the Bull which exempted the clergy altogether from taxation for the state had not been rescinded, only mitigated as regarded France. All these smaller vexatious acts of rapacity showed that the King was actuated by the same spirit, which would proceed to any extremity rather than yield this prerogative of his crown.

The dissatisfaction of Philip with the arbitration of Boniface between France and England; his indignation that the arbitrement, which had been referred to Benedetto Gaetani, not to Pope Boniface, had been published in the form of a Bull; the fury into which the King and the nobles were betrayed by the articles concerning the Count of Flanders, rest on no extant contemporary authority; yet are so particular and so characteristic that it is difficult to ascribe them to the invention of the

French historians.^p It is said that the Bull, which had been ostentatiously read before a great public assembly in the Vatican, was presented to the King of France by an English prelate, the Bishop of Durham, as Papal Legate for that purpose, as well as ambassador of England; that besides the articles of peace between France and England, it ordered the King to surrender to the Count of Flanders all the cities which he had taken during the war, to deliver up his daughter, who had been a prisoner in France during two years, and to allow the Count of Flanders to marry her according to his own choice;^q and also commanded Philip himself to take up the Cross for the Holy Land. The King could not restrain his wrath. Count Robert of Artois seized the insolent parchment: "Such dishonour shall never fall on the kingdom of France." He threw it into the fire.^r Some trembled, some highly lauded this contempt of the Pope.

^p The bull as published in Rymer contains no article relating to the Count of Flanders; it is entirely confined to the dispute between France and England, and the affairs of Gascony. That article, if there were such, must have been separate and distinct. The English ambassadors, according to another document (New Rymer), refused to enter into the negotiation without the consent of the Counts of Flanders and Bar. The two counts submitted, like the two kings, to the Papal arbitration.

^q I have quoted above the bull annulling the marriage contract of young Edward of England with this princess, p. 79.

^r Dupuy, Mezeray, and Velly relate all this without hesitation. Sismondi rejects it altogether. Dupuy refers to Villani, where there is not a word about it, and to the Flemish historian

Oudegherst, qui (l'Archevesque de Rains) "depuis les presenta au Roy Philippe le Bel, en la presence de plusieurs Princes du Royaulme, et entre autres de Robert Conte d'Artoys, lequel s'apprehendant d'une inusitée melancholie et tristesse que ladicte sentence avoit causee au cuer d'iceluy, Roy Philippe, print lesdictes bulles des mains de l'Archevesque, lesquelles il deschira et jecta au feu, disant que tel deshonneur n'aviendroit jamais à un Roy de France. Dont aucuns des Assistans le louerent grandement, les autres le blasmerent." Oudegherst, p. 222. It is singular that there is the same obscurity about the demand made, it is said, by the Bishop of Pamiers for the liberation of the Count of Flanders—one of the causes which exasperated Philip most violently against that prelate.

It is quite certain that Philip took a step of more decided disdain and hostility to the Pope, in entering into an open alliance and connexion by marriage with the excommunicated Albert of Austria. The King of the Romans and the King of France met in great pomp between Toul and Vaucouleurs, on the confines of their kingdoms. Blanche, the sister of Philip, was solemnly espoused to Rodolph, son of Albert of Austria. This step implied more than mistrust, total disbelief in the promises held out by Pope Boniface to Charles of Valois, that not merely he should be placed, as the reward of his Italian conquests, on the throne of the Eastern Empire, but that the Pope would ensure his succession to the Empire of the West, held to be vacant by the death of Adolph of Nassau. These magnificent hopes the Pope had not the power, Philip manifestly believed that he had not the will, to accomplish.* Albert of Austria was yet under the Papal ban as the murderer of his Sovereign. Boniface had exhorted the ecclesiastical electors to resist his usurpation, as he esteemed it, to the utmost. Neither the Archbishops of Mentz nor of Cologne were present at the meeting. Albert of Austria communicated this treaty of marriage with the royal house of France to the Pope; and no doubt hoped to advance at least the recognition of his title as King of the Romans. Boniface refused to admit the ambassadors of the vassal who had slain his lord, of a Prince who, without the Papal sanction, dared to assume the title of King of the Romans.†

Rumours of more ostentatious contemptuousness were widely disseminated in Transalpine Christendom, and

* *Historia Austriæ*, apud Fischer, i. 417, sub ann. 1299. Leibnitz, *Cod. Diplom.* i. 25.

† Raynald, sub ann. 1300.

among the Ghibellines of Northern Italy. Boniface <sup>Rumours about Boni-
face.</sup> had appeared in warlike attire, and declared that himself, the successor of St. Peter, was the only Cæsar. During the Jubilee he had displayed himself alternately in the splendid habiliments of the Pope and those of the Emperor, with the crown on his head, the sceptre in his hand, and the Imperial sandals on his feet; he had two swords borne before him, and thus openly assumed the full temporal as well as spiritual supremacy over mankind. These reports, whether grounded on some misunderstanding of acts or words, or on the general haughty demeanour of the Pope, whether gross exaggeration or absolute invention, were no doubt spread by the industrious vindictiveness of the Pontiff's enemies.^a It was no augury of peace that some of the Colonnas were openly received at the court <sup>The Co-
lonnas.</sup> of France: Stephen, the nephew of the two Cardinals (they remained at Genoa), Sciarra, a name afterwards more fatal to the Pope, redeemed by the liberality of the King from the corsairs who had taken him on the high seas. It is far from improbable that from the Colonnas and their partisans, not only such statements as these had their source or their blacker colouring, but even darker and more heinous charges. These were all seized by the lawyers, Peter Flotte and William of Nogaret. Italian revenge, brooding over cruel and unforgiven injuries, degradation, impoverishment, exile; Ghibelline hatred, with the discomfiture of ecclesiastical ambition in the Churchmen, would be little scrupulous as to the weapons which it would employ. Boniface, if not the victim of his overweening arrogance, may have been the victim of his own violence and implacability.

^a Of one thing only I am confident, that they are not later inventions.

The unfortunate, if not insulting, choice of his Legate at this peculiar crisis precipitated the rupture. Instead of one of the grave, smooth, distinguished, if inflexible, Cardinals of his own court, Boniface entrusted with this difficult mission a man turbulent, intriguing, odious to Philip; with notions of sacerdotal power as stern and unbending as his own; a subject of the King of France, yet in a part of the kingdom in which that subjection was recent and doubtful. Bernard Saisset had been Abbot of St. Antonine's in Pamiers, a <sup>Saisset
Bishop of
Pamiers,</sup> city of Languedoc. The Counts of Foix had a joint jurisdiction with the Abbot over that city and over the domains of the convent. But the house of Foix during the Albigensian war had lost all its power; these rights passed first to Simon de Montfort, then to the King of France. But the King of France, Philip the Hardy, had rewarded Roger Bernard, Count of Foix, for his services in the war of Catalonia, with the grant of all his rights over Pamiers, except the absolute suzerainty. The Abbots resisted the grant, and refused all accommodation. The King commanded the Viscount of Bigorre, who held the castle, to put it into the hands of the Count of Foix. The Abbot appealed to Rome. Roger Bernard was excommunicated; <sup>A.D. 1295,
1296.</sup> his lands placed under interdict. The Pope erected the city of Pamiers into a Bishopric; Bernard Saisset became Bishop, and condescended to receive a large sum from the Count of Foix, with a fixed rent on the estates. The Count of Foix did homage at the feet of the Bishop.

Such was the man chosen by Boniface as Legate to the proud and irascible Philip the Fair. There is no record of the special object of his mission or of his instructions. It is said that he held the loftiest and

most contemptuous language concerning the illimitable power of the Church over all temporal sovereigns; that his arrogant demeanour rendered his demands still more insulting; that he peremptorily insisted on the liberation of the Count of Flanders and his daughter. Philip, after the proclamation of his truce with England, had again sent a powerful army into Flanders: the Count was abandoned by the King of England, abandoned by his own subjects. Guy of Dampierre (we have before alluded to his fate) had been compelled to surrender with his family, and was now a prisoner in France. Philip had the most deep-rooted hatred of the Count of Flanders, as a rebellious vassal, and as one whom he had cruelly injured. Some passion as profound as this, or his most sensitive pride, must have been galled by the Bishop of Pamiers, or even Philip the Fair would hardly have been goaded to measures of such vindictive violence. Philip was surrounded by his great lawyers, his Chancellor Peter Flotte, his confidential advisers, Enguerrand de Marigny, William de Plasian, and William of Nogaret, honest counsellors as far as the advancement of the royal power, the independence of the temporal on the spiritual sovereignty, and the administration of justice by learned and able men, according to fixed principles of law, instead of the wild and uncertain judgements of the petty feudal lords, lay or ecclesiastic; dangerous counsellors, as servile instruments of royal encroachment, oppression, and exaction; everywhere straining the law, the old Roman law, in favour of the kingly prerogative, beyond its proper despotism. Philip, by their advice, determined to arraign the Papal Legate, as a subject guilty at least of spoken treason. He allowed the Bishop to depart, but Saisset was followed or preceded

by a commission sent to Toulouse, the Archdeacon of Angers and the Vidame of Amiens, to collect secret information as to his conduct and lan-
May, 1301.
 guage. So soon as the Legate Bishop arrived in his diocese, he found a formidable array of charges prepared against him. Twenty-four witnesses had been examined; the Counts of Foix and Comminges, the Bishop of Toulouse, Beziers, and Maguelone, the Abbot of St. Pepoul. He was accused of simony, of heresy, principally as regarded confession.* The Bishop would have fled at once to Rome; but this flight without the leave of the King or his metropolitan had incurred the forfeiture of his temporalities. He sent the Abbot of Mas d'Asil humbly to entreat permission to retire. But the King's commissioners were on the watch. The Vidame of Amiens stood by night at the gates of the Episcopal Palace, summoned the Bishop to appear before the King, searched all his chambers, set the royal seal on all his books, papers, money, plate, on his episcopal ornaments. It is even said that his domestics were put to the torture to obtain evidence against him. After some delay, the Prelate set out from Toulouse,
July, 1301.
 accompanied by the captain of the crossbowmen and his troop, the Seneschal of Toulouse, and two royal sergeants—ostensibly to do him honour; in fact, as a guard upon the prisoner.

The King was holding his Court-plenary, a Parliament of the whole realm at Senlis. The Bishop appeared before him, as he sat surrounded by
Oct. 24.
 the princes, prelates, knights, and ecclesiastics. Peter Flotte, the Keeper of the Seals, rose and arraigned the

* Dupuy Preuves, p. 326. There may be read the depositions of the witnesses.

Bishop as having uttered many contemptuous and treasonable words against the King's Majesty. He ^{Charges against De Salasset.} offered to substantiate these grave charges by unexceptionable witnesses. Then Bishop Bernard was accused of having repeated a prediction of Saint Louis, that in the third generation, under a weak prince, the kingdom of France would pass for ever from his line into that of strangers; of having said that Philip was in every way unworthy of the crown; that he was not of the pure race of Charlemagne, but of a handsome branch; that he was no true King, but a handsome image, who thought of nothing but being looked upon with admiration by the world; that he deserved no name but that of issuer of base money;¹ that his court was treacherous, corrupt, and unbelieving as himself; that he had grievously oppressed by tyranny and extortion all who spoke the language of Toulouse; that he had no authority over Pamiers, which was neither within the realm nor held of the kingdom of France. There were other charges of acts, not of words; secret overtures to England; attempts to alienate the loyalty of the Counts of Comminges, and to induce the province of Languedoc to revolt, and set up her old independent Counts.² The Chancellor concluded by addressing the metropolitan, the Archbishop of Narbonne, summoning him in the King's name to seize and secure the person thus accused by the King of *leze majesté*; if the Archbishop refused, the King must take his own course. The Archbishop was in the utmost consternation and difficulty. He dared not absolutely refuse obedience to the King. The life of the Bishop was threatened by some of the more lawless of the court. He was with-

¹ *Faux monnayeur.*

² The charges are in Dupuy, p. 633, *et seqq.*

drawn, as if for protection; the King's guards slept in his chamber. The Archbishop remonstrated against this insult towards a spiritual person. The King demanded whether he would be answerable for the safe custody of the prisoner. The Archbishop was bound not only by awe, but by gratitude to the Pope. One of the causes of the quarrel between Boniface and the King was the zealous assertion of the Archbishop's rights to the Countship of Maguelone. He consulted the Archbishop of Auch and the other bishops. It was agreed that the Bishop of Senlis should make over for a certain time a portion of his territory to the Archbishop. Within that ceded territory the Bishop should be kept, but not in close custody; his own chamberlain alone was to sleep in his chamber, but the King might appoint a faithful knight to keep guard. He was to have his chaplains; permission to write to Rome, his letters being first examined; lest his diocese should suffer damage, his seal was to be locked up in a strong chest under two keys, of which he retained one.

King Philip could not commit this bold act of the seizure and imprisonment of a bishop, a Papal Nuncio, without communicating his proceedings to the Pope. This communication was made, either accompanied or followed by a solemn embassy. But if the Legate appointed by the Pope was the most obnoxious ecclesiastic whom he could have chosen, the chief ambassador designated by the King, who proceeded to Rome, and affronted the Pope by his dauntless language, was the Keeper of the Seals, Peter Flotte.* If the King and

* After careful examination of the evidence, I think there is no doubt of this mission of Peter Flotte. It cannot be pure invention. See Mutt,

Westm. in loc. Walsingham. Spennanus, sub ann. 1301. Raynald, ibid. Ballet, Demeles, p. 113, &c.

his counsellors had desired to show the malice and falsehood or gross exaggeration of the treasonable charges brought against the Bishop of Pamiers, they could not have done it more effectually than by the monstrous language which they accused him of having used against the Pope himself,—the Pope, whom he represented as Legate or Nuncio at the court of France, the object of his devout reverence as a High Churchman, to whom he had applied for protection, at whose feet he sought for refuge. The Bishop of Pamiers (so averred the King of France in a public despatch) was not only, according to the usual charges against all delinquent prelates, guilty of heresy, simony, and unbelief; of having declared the sacrament of penance a human invention, fornication not forbidden to the clergy: in accumulation of these offences, he had called Boniface the Supreme Pontiff, in the hearing of many credible witnesses, the devil incarnate; he had asserted “that the Pope had impiously canonised St. Louis, who was in hell.” “No wonder that this man had not hesitated to utter the foulest treasons against his temporal sovereign, when he had thus blasphemed against God and the Church.” “All this the inquisitors had gathered from the attestations of bishops, abbots, and religious men, as well as counts, knights, and burghers.” The King demanded the degradation and the condemnation of the Bishop by spiritual censures, and permission to make “a sacrifice to God by the hands of justice.” Peter Flotte is declared, even in the presence of the Pope, to have maintained his unawed intrepidity. To the Pope’s absolute assertion of his superiority over the secular power, the Chancellor replied with sarcastic significance, “Your power in temporal affairs is a power in word, that of the King my master in deed.”

Such negotiations, with such a negotiator, were not likely to lead to peace. Bull after Bull came forth; several of the earlier ones bore the same date. The first was addressed to the King. It declared in the strongest terms that the temporal sovereign had no authority whatever over the person of an ecclesiastic. "The Pope had heard with deep sorrow that the King of France had caused the Bishop of Pamiers to be brought before him (Boniface trusted not against his will),^b and had committed him to the custody of the Archbishop of Narbonne. The Pope exhorted, he commanded the King immediately to release the prelate, to permit him to proceed to Rome, and to restore all his goods and chattels. Unless he did this instantly, he would incur canonical censure for laying his profane and sacrilegious hands on a bishop." A second Bull commanded the Archbishop of Narbonne to consider the Bishop as under the special protection of the Pope; to send him, with all the documents produced upon the trial, to Rome; and to inhibit all further proceedings of the King. A third Bull annulled the special suspension, as regarded France, of the famous Papal statute that clerks should make no payments whatever to the laity;^c "the King was to learn that by his disobedient conduct he had forfeited all peculiar and distinctive favour from the Holy See." The fourth was even a stronger and more irrevocable act of hostility. This Bull was addressed to all the archbishops and prelates, to the cathedral chapters, and the doctors of the canon and the civil law. It cited them to appear in person, or by their repre-

Papal Bulls.
Dec. 3.

Dec. 4,
1302.

^b "Utinam non invitum."—Raynald. Ann. 1301, c. xxviii.

^c "Clericis Laicos."

sentatives, at Rome on the 1st November of the ensuing year, to take counsel concerning all the excesses, crimes, acts of insolence, injury, or exaction, committed by the King of France or his officers against the churches, the secular and regular clergy of his kingdom. This was to set himself at the head of a league or conspiracy of the whole clergy of France against their King, it was a levy in mass of the hierarchy in full revolt. The Pope had already condescendingly informed the King of his intention, and entreated him not to be disturbed by these proceedings, but to place full reliance on the equity and indulgence of the Supreme Pontiff.

So closed the first year of this century. Early in the following year was published, or at least widely bruited abroad, a Bull bearing the Pope's signature, brief, sharp, sententious. It had none of that grave solemnity, that unctuous ostentation of pious and paternal tenderness, that prodigality of Scriptural and sacred allusion, which usually sheathed the severest admonitions of the Holy See. "Boniface the Pope to the King of France. We would have you to know that you are subordinate in temporals as in spirituals. The collation to benefices and prebends in no wise belongs to you: if you have any guardianship of vacant benefices, it is only to receive the fruits for the successors. Whatever collations you have made, we declare null; whatever have been carried into effect, we revoke. All who believe not this are guilty of heresy." The Pope, in his subsequent Bulls, openly accuses certain persons of having issued false writings in his name; he intimates, if he does not directly charge Peter Flotte as guilty of the fraud. That this is the document, or one of the documents, thus disclaimed,

The Lesser
Bull.

there can be no doubt. Was it, then, a bold and groundless forgery, or a summary of the Pope's pretensions, stripped of all stately circumlocution, and presented in their odious and offensive plainness, with a view to enable the world, or at least France, to judge on the points at issue? It might seem absolutely incredible that the Chancellor of France should have the audacity to promulgate writings in the name of the Pope, altogether fictitious, which the Pope would instantly disown; if the monstrous charges adduced against the Bishop of Pamiers, and afterwards in open court against the Pope himself, did not display an utter contempt for truth, a confidence in the credulity of mankind, at least as inconceivable in later times. Our doubts of the sheer invention are rather as to the impolicy than the mendacity of the act. The answer in the name of the King of France (and this answer, undoubtedly authentic, proves irrefragably the publication and wide dissemination of the Lesser Bull of the Pope) with its ostentation not only of discourteous but of vulgar contempt, obtained the same publicity. "Philip, by the grace of God King of France, to Boniface, who assumes to be the Chief Pontiff, little or no greeting.^d Let your fatuity know, that in temporals we are subordinate to none. The collation to vacant benefices and prebends belongs to us by royal right; the fruits are ours. We will maintain all collations made and to be made by us, and their possessors. All who believe otherwise we hold to be fools and madmen."^e

^d "*Salutem medicam aut nullam.*"

^e The weight of evidence that these two extraordinary documents were extant and published at the time seems to me irresistible. They were not

contested for 300 years; they are adduced by most of the writers of the time; they are to be found in the Gloss on the Decretals of Boniface, published 40 years after by John

The more full and acknowledged Bull might indeed be almost fairly reduced to the coarse and rude summary of the Lesser.^f It contained undeniably, under its veil of specious and moderate language, every one of those hardy and unmeasured doctrines. But the language is part of the spirit of such documents; the mitigating and explanatory phrase is not necessarily deceptive or hypocritical: though in truth each party was determined to misunderstand the other. Neither was prepared to follow out his doctrines to their legitimate conclusion; neither could acknowledge the impossibility of fixing the bounds of spiritual and of temporal authority. The Pope's notion of spiritual supremacy necessarily comprehended the whole range of human action: the King represented the Pope as claiming a feudal supremacy, as though he asserted the kingdom of France to be held of him. And this was the intelligible sovereignty which roused the indignation of feudal France, indignation justified by the actual claim of such sovereignty over other kingdoms. Each therefore stood on an impregnable theoretic ground; but each theory, when they attempted to carry it into practice, clashed with insurmountable difficulties.

The greater Bull, of which the authenticity is unques-

Andrew of Bologna. See all the very curious deliberation of Peter de Boco on this very Bull, published in Dupuy, Piseux, p. 45. It is called in general the Lesser Bull.

^f Sismondi supposes that the Lesser Bull was framed by Peter Flotte, to be laid before the States-General, on account of the great length of the genuine Bull; that having so presented it, and seen its effect, he was unable and unwilling to withdraw it.

But of the answers of the three Orders, two are extant, and in a very different tone from the brief one ascribed to the King. It seems to me rather to have been intended as an appeal to popular feeling than to that of a regular assembly. Such substitution is hardly conceivable in an assembly at which all the prelates and great abbots of the kingdom were present. Nor does this notion account for the King's reply.

tioned, ran in these terms :—It began with the accustomed protestation of parental tenderness, which demanded more than filial obedience, obedience Bull, "Ausculta fili" to the Pope as to God. "Hearken, my most dear son, to the precepts of thy father; open the ears of thine heart to the instruction of thy master, the vicegerent of Him who is the one Master and Lord. Receive willingly, be careful to fulfil to the utmost, the admonitions of thy mother, the Church. Return to God with a contrite heart, from whom, by sloth or through evil counsels, thou hast departed, and devoutly conform to His decrees and ours." The Pope then shadows forth the plenary and tremendous power of Rome in the vague and awful words of the Old Testament. "See, I have this day set thee over the nations and over the kingdoms, to root out and to pull down, and to destroy and to overthrow, to build and to plant."² This was no new Papal phrase; it had been used with the same boldness of misappropriation by the Gregories and Innocents of old. It might mean only spiritual censures; it was softened off in the next clause into such meaning.¹ Yet it might also signify the annulling the subjects' oaths of allegiance, the overthrow by any means of the temporal throne, the transference of the crown from one head to another. This sentence, which in former times had been awful, was now presumptuous, offensive, odious. It was that which the King, at a later period, insisted most strenuously on erasing from the Bull. "Let no one persuade you that you are not subject to the Hierarchy of the Celestial Hierarchy." The Bull proceeds to rebuke, in firm, but

¹ Jeremiah i. 10.

² "Ut gregem pascentes Dominicum . . . alligamus fracta, et reducamus subiecta, vinumque infundamus," &c.

neither absolutely ungentle nor discourteous terms, the oppressions of the King over his subjects (the most galling sentences were those which alluded to his tampering with the coin, "his acts as money-changer"), not only the oppressions of Ecclesiastics, but of Peers, Counts, Barons, the Universities, and the people, all of whom the Pope thus takes under his protection. The King's right to the collation of benefices he denies in the most peremptory terms; he brands his presumption in bringing ecclesiastics under the temporal jurisdiction, his levying taxes on the clergy who did not hold fiefs of the Crown, "although no layman has any power whatever over an ecclesiastic:" he censures especially the King's usurpations on the church of Lyons, a church beyond the limits of his realm, and independent of his authority; his abuse of the custody of vacant bishoprics. "The voice of the Pope was hoarse in remonstrating against these acts of iniquity, to which the King turned the ear of the deaf adder." Though the Pope would be justified in taking arms against the King, his bow and quiver (what bow and quiver he leaves in significant obscurity), he had determined to make this last appeal to Philip's conscience. He had summoned the clergy of France to Rome to take cognisance of all these things. He solemnly warned the King against the evil counsellors by whom he was environed; and concluded with the old and somewhat obsolete termination of all such addresses to Christian Kings, an admonition to consider the state of the Holy Land, the all-absorbing duty of recovering the sepulchre of Christ.

The King in all this grave, as it bore upon its face paternal exhortation, saw only, or chose to see, or was permitted by his loyal counsellors, who by their servile

adulation of his passions absolutely ruled his mind, to see only the few plain and arrogant demands concentrated in the Lesser Bull, with the allusions to his oppressions and exactions, not less insulting from their truth. His conscience as a Christian was untouched by religious awe; his pride as a King provoked to fury. The Archdeacon of Narbonne, the bearer of the Papal Bull, was ignominiously refused admittance to the royal presence. In the midst of his court, more than ordinarily thronged with nobles, Philip solemnly declared that he would disinherit all his sons if they consented to hold the kingdom of France of any one but of God. Fifteen days after, the Bull of the Pope was publicly burned in Paris in the King's presence, and this act proclaimed throughout the city by the sound of the trumpet.¹ Paris knew no more of the ground of the quarrel, or of the Papal pretensions, than may have been communicated in the Lesser Bull; it heard in respectful silence, if not with acclamation, the King's defiance of the Pope, at which a century before it would have trembled and wailed, as inevitably to be followed by all the gloom, terror, spiritual privations of an Interdict.

All France seemed prepared to espouse the quarrel of the King. Philip, or Philip's counsellors, had such confidence in the state of the public mind, which themselves had so skilfully wrought up, as boldly to appeal to the whole nation. The States-General were summoned for the first time, not only the two orders, the Nobles and the Clergy, but the commonalty also, the burghers of the towns and cities, now rising into notice and wealth. The States-General met in the

Jan. 28,
1302.

States-
General.
April 10, 1302.

¹ Dupuy, p. 59.

church of Notre Dame at Paris. The Chancellor, Peter Flotte, submitted, and put his own construction on the several Bulls issued by the Pope on the 5th of December, which withdrew the privileges conceded by himself to the realm of France, summoned all the Bishops and Doctors of Theology and Law in France to Rome, as his subjects and spiritual vassals, and (this was the vital question) asserted that the King held the realm of France, not of God, but of the Pope. This feudal suzerainty, the only suzerainty the Nobles comprehended, and which was declared by the Chancellor to be claimed by the Pope, was hardly less odious to them than to the King. The clergy were embarrassed; some, no doubt, felt strongly the national pride of independence, though they owed unlimited allegiance to the Pope. They held, too, fiefs of the Crown; and the collation of benefices by the Crown secured them from that of which they were especially jealous, the intrusion of foreigners into the preferments which they esteemed their own right. There had been, from the days of Hincmar of Rheims at least, a vague notion of some special and distinctive liberties belonging to the Gallican Church. The Commons, or the Third Estate, would hardly have been summoned by Philip and his subtle advisers, if their support to the royal cause had not been sure. The pride of their new political importance, their recognition as part of the nation, if not their intelligence, would maintain their loyalty to the Crown, undisturbed by any superstitious veneration for the Hierarchy.

Each order drew up its separate address to the Papal Court; that of the ruder Nobles was in French, Address of the Nobles to the Cardinals; not to the Pope, but to the Cardinals; that of the clergy in Latin, to the Pope. These two are extant;

the third, of the Commons, which would no doubt have been the most curious, is lost. The Nobles dwell on the long and immemorial and harmonious amity between the Church of Rome and the realm of France; that amity was disturbed by the extortionate and unbridled acts of him who now governed the Church. They, the Nobles and People of France, would never, under the worst extremities, endure the wicked and outrageous innovations of the Pope, his claim of the temporal subjection of the King and the kingdom to Rome, his summoning the prelates and ecclesiastical dignitaries of the realm for the redress of alleged grievances and oppressions before Boniface at Rome. "We, the people of France, neither desire nor will receive the redress of such grievances by his authority or his power, but only from that of our Lord the King." They vindicate the King's determination not to allow the wealth of the realm, especially arms, to be exported from France. They accuse the Pope of having usurped the collation of benefices, and of having bestowed them for money on unknown strangers. By this and his other exactions, the Church was so impoverished and discredited that the bishops could not find men of noble descent, of good birth, or of letters, to accept benefices. "These things, hateful to God and displeasing to good men, had never been seen, and were not expected to be seen, before the time of Antichrist." They call on the Cardinals to arrest the Pope in his dangerous courses, to chastise him for his excesses, that Christendom may return to peace, and good Christians be able to devote themselves to the recovery of the Holy Land. This letter was signed by Louis, Count of Evreux, the King's brother; by Robert, Count of Artois; by the Dukes of Burgundy, Bretagne, Lorraine; the Counts of Dreux, St. Pol, de la

Marche, Boulogne, Comminges, Albemarle, Forez, Eu, Nevres, Auxerre, Perigord, Joigny, Valentinois, Poitiers, Montbeliard, Sancerre, even by the Flemish Counts of Hainault and Luxemburg, the Lords of Couci and Beaujeu, the Viscount of Narbonne, and some others.*

The address of the Prelates to the Pope was more respectful, if not, as usual, supplicatory. They Of the Clergy to the Pope. too treat as dangerous novelties, now first expressed in the Papal Bulls, the assertion that the King holds his realm of the Pope, the right of the Pope to summon the subjects of the King, high ecclesiastics, to Rome, for the general redress of grievances, wrongs, and injuries committed by the King, his bailiffs or officers. They too urge the collation to benefices of persons unknown, strangers, and not above suspicion, who never reside on their benefices; the unpopularity and impoverishment of the Church; the constant drain on the wealth of the realm by direct exactions and perpetual appeals to Rome. The King had called on them and on the Barons of France to consult with him on the maintenance of the ancient liberties, honour, and state of the kingdom. The Barons had withdrawn, and determined to support the King. They too had retired, but had demanded longer delay, lest they should infringe on their obedience to the Pope. They had at length replied that they held themselves bound to the preservation of the person and of the authority of the King, the rights and liberties of the kingdom. But, as they were also under allegiance to the Pope, they had humbly craved permission to go to Rome to represent the whole case. To this the King and the Barons had answered by a stern refusal to permit them to quit the

* *Preuves*, p. 51 52.

realm, on the penalty of the seizure and sequestration of all their lands and goods. "So great and imminent was the peril as to threaten an absolute dissolution of the Church and State; the clergy were so odious to the people that they avoided all intercourse with them; tongue could not tell the dangers to which they were exposed."¹

The Cardinals replied to the Dukes, Counts, and Barons of France with dignity and moderation. They assured the Nobles of their earnest Answer of the Cardinals. desire, and that of the Pope, to maintain the friendly relations between the Church of Rome and the kingdom of France. He was an enemy to the man (designating clearly, but not naming the Chancellor) who had sowed the tares of discord. The Pope had never written to the King claiming the *temporal* sovereignty. The Archdeacon of Narbonne, as himself deposes, had not advanced such claim. The whole argument, therefore, of the Chancellor was built on sand. They insisted on the right of the Pope to hold Councils, and to summon to such Councils all the Prelates of Christendom. In their turn they eluded the charge that this Council was to take cognisance of what were undeniably the temporal affairs of France. "If all the letters of the Pope had been laid before the Prelates and Barons, and their tenor explained by the Pope's Nuncio, they would have been found full of love and pious solicitude." They then dwell on the manifest favours of the Papal See to France. They deny that the Pope had appointed any foreign bishops, but to the sees of Bourges and of Arras.

¹ "Cum jam abhorreant laici et promus effugiant consortia clericorum, tionibus abdicando . . . in grave periculum animarum et varia et diversa pericula."—*Preuves*, p. 70 et seq.

In all other cases he had nominated subjects of the realm, men known in the Court, familiar with the King, and of good repute.^m The answer of the Cardinals to the Mayors, Sheriffs, Jurors of the cities and towns, was in the same grave tone, denying the claim of temporal sovereignty, and alleging the same acts.

The Pope, in his answer to the Prelates and Clergy, Answer of the Pope to the Bishops. did not maintain the same decorous majesty. His wrath was excited by what he deemed the timorous apostasy of Churchmen from the cause of the Church. "Under the hypocritical veil of consolation, the beloved daughter, the Church of France, had heaped reproach on her spotless mother, the Church of Rome. The Prelates had stooped to be mendicants for the suffrages of the Parliament of Paris, and alleged the loss of their property, and the danger of their persons, if they should set out for Rome. That son of Belial, Peter Flotte, whose bodily sight was so feeble, who was stone-blind in soul, had been permitted, and others who thirsted for Christian blood had been permitted, to lead astray our dear son, Philip of France." "And to this ye listened, who ought to have poured scathing contempt upon them all. Ye did this from base timidity, from baser worldliness. But they labour in vain. He that sitteth in the north shall not long lift himself up against the Vicar of Christ Jesus, to whom there has not yet been a second: he shall fall with all his followers. Do not they who deny the subjection of the temporal to the spiritual power assert the two principles?"ⁿ This was a subtle blow. Manicheism was the most hated heresy to all who knew, and all who did not know, its meaning.

^m June 26. *Preuves*, p. 63.

ⁿ *Preuves*, p. 66.

At Rome, about the same time, was held a Consistory, in which the differences with France were submitted to solemn deliberation. Matthew Acqua June 25
Consistory at
Rome. Sparta, the Franciscan, Cardinal of Porto, as representing the sense of the Cardinals, delivered a long address, half sermon and half speech. He took for his text, from the epistle of the day before, the Speech of
Cardinal of
Porto. Feast of St. John the Baptist, the passage of Jeremiah concerning the universal power to pluck up, root out, destroy, and plant. He applied it directly to John the Baptist, by clear inference to the Pope. He lamented the difference with the King of France, which had arisen from so light a cause; asserted perfect harmony to exist between the Pope and the Sacred College. He declared the real letter sent by the Pope to have been full of gentleness and love; the false letter had neither been sent nor authorised by the Pope. "Had not the King of France a confessor? Did he not receive absolution? It is as partaking of sin that the Pope takes cognisance of all temporal acts." He appeals to the famous similitude of the two luminaries, of which the temporal power was the lesser; but he draws a distinction between the temporal power of the Pope and his right to carry it into execution. "The Vicar of Christ has unbounded jurisdiction, for he is even to judge the quick and the dead; but he is not competent to the use, he is not the executive of the temporal power, for 'the Lord said, put up thy sword (the temporal sword) into its scabbard.'"

The Pope followed the Cardinal of Porto in a more strange line of argument. His text was, "Whom God has joined together, let no man put asunder." Speech of
the Pope. This sentence, applied, he says, by God to our first parents, applies also to the Church and the Kings

of France. On the first baptism of the King of France by S. Remigius, the Archbishop said, "Hold thee to the Church: so long as thou holdest to the Church, thou and thy kingdom shall prosper: so soon as thou departest from it, thou and thy kingdom shall perish. What gifts and blessings^o does not the King of France receive from the Church! even at the present day, by our grants and dispensations, forty thousand livres. 'Let no man put asunder.' Who is the man? The word *man* is sometimes used for God, Christ, the Holy Spirit, sometimes for the devil. Here it means that diabolical man, that Antichrist, blind in bodily eyesight, more blind of soul, Peter Flotte. The satellites of that Ahitophel are Robert Count of Artois and the Count St. Pol. It is he that falsified our letter; it is he that made us say to the King that he held his realm of us. For forty years we have been trained in the science of law; we know that there are two powers; how could such a folly enter our head? We say, as our brother the Cardinal of Porto has said, that in nothing would we usurp the royal power; but the King cannot deny that he is subject to us in regard to his sins." The Pope then enters on the collation to benefices, on which point he is prepared, of his free grace, to make large but special concessions to the King. After some expressions of regard, he reassumes the language of reproach and of menace. "But for us, the King would not have a foot in the stirrup. When the English, the Germans, all his more powerful vassals and neighbours, rose up against him in one league, to whom but to us did he owe his triumph? Our predecessors have deposed three Kings of France. These things are written in their annals as in ours; and this King, guilty

of so much more heinous offences, we could depose as we could discharge a groom,^p though we should do it with sorrow. As for the citation of Bishops, we could call the whole world to our presence, weak and aged as we are. If they come not at our command, let them know that they are hereby deprived and deposed."

From this Consistory emanated a second Bull, which deliberately and fully defined the powers assumed by the Pope. It asserted the eternal unity of the Catholic Church under St. Peter and his successors. The Bull "Unam sanctam." Whosoever, as the Greeks, denied that subordination, denied that themselves were of Christ. "There are two swords, the spiritual and the temporal: our Lord said not of these two swords, 'it is too much, but 'it is enough.' Both are in the power of the Church: the one the spiritual, to be used *by* the Church, the other the material, *for* the Church; the former that of priests, the latter that of kings and soldiers, to be wielded at the command and by the sufferance of the priest.^q One sword must be under the other, the temporal under the spiritual. . . . The spiritual instituted the temporal power, and judges whether that power is well exercised." The eternal verse of Jeremiah is adduced. "If the temporal power errs, it is judged by the spiritual. To deny this, is to assert, with the heretical Manicheans, two co-equal principles. We therefore assert, define, and pronounce that it is necessary to salvation to believe that every human being is subject to the Pontiff of Rome."^r

^p "Nos deponeremus Regem, sicut unum garcionem." See the whole speech in Raynald, sub ann.

^q "Ad nutum et patientiam sacerdotis."

^r "Porro subesse Romano Pontifici omni humanæ creature declaramus, dicimus, et diffinimus omnino esse de necessitate fidei."—*Preuves*, p. 54.

The insurrection in Flanders diverted the minds of men for some short time from this quarrel which appalled Christendom. The free and industrious Fleming manufacturing burghers found the rule of the King of France more intolerable than that of their former lords. Their victory at Courtrai, foretold by a comet, the most bloody and humiliating defeat which for years had been suffered by the arms of France, was not likely to soothe the haughty temper of Philip. The loftier Churchmen, in the death of Robert of Artois on that fatal field, saw the judgement of God on him, who was said to have trodden under foot the Pope's Bull of arbitration, whose seal was the first affixed to the remonstrance of the Nobles in the Parliament of Paris.^a Among those that fell was a more dire enemy of the Pope, the Chancellor Peter Flotte.

Hence, perhaps, in the mean time attempts had been made to obtain the mediation of some of the greater vassals of the Crown, the Dukes of Bretagne and of Burgundy. The Pope had intimated that they would be more fitting and acceptable ambassadors than the King's insolent legal counsellors. Those powerful and almost independent sovereigns had commissioned Hugh, a brother of the Order of Knights Templars, to express their earnest desire for the reconciliation of the King with the Pope. From Anagni the Cardinal of Porto wrote to the Duke of Bretagne, the Cardinals of San Pudenziana and S. Maria Nuova to the Duke of Burgundy, representing the insult offered to the Pope in

^a Continuat. Nangis, Bouquet, p. 585. Chroniques de St. Denys, p. 670. Villani (viii, 55) antedates the battle March 21. He is especially

indignant that the nobles of France were defeated by base artisans, "tes-serandoli e fulloni." This is curious in the mercantile Florentine.

publicly burning his Bull (an act which neither heretic, pagan, nor tyrant would have done), and the friendly and patient tone of the Pope's genuine letters. They explained the reason why the Pope could not write to one actually in a state of excommunication. They exhorted the princes to induce the King to humble himself before his spiritual father.

The Prelates of France had been summoned to appear in Rome at the beginning of November. It was to be seen how many would dare to defy Prelates who go to Rome. the resentment of the King, and resolutely obey their spiritual sovereign. There were only four Archbishops, thirty-five Bishops, six of the great Abbots. Of these by far the larger number were the Bishops of Bretagne, Burgundy, and Languedoc. The Archbishop of Tours headed eight of his Breton suffragans; the Archbishop of Auch fifteen Provençals, including the Bishop of Pamiers. The Archbishop of Bordeaux was a subject of the King of England, as Duke of Aquitaine. The Archbishop of Bourges was one of the Italians promoted by the Pope; with him went one or two of his suffragans. Philip, it might seem, knew from what quarters he might expect this defection. The Seneschal of Toulouse received orders to publish the royal prohibition to all Barons, Knights, Primates, Bishops, or Abbots against quitting the realm; or, if they should have quitted it, to command their instant return, on pain of corporal punishment and confiscation of all their temporal goods. These southern provinces he watched with peculiar jealousy, and, as if determined to shake the ecclesiastical dominion, he published an Edict,^t denouncing the

Philip condemns the Inquisition.
Oct. 21.

^t Ordonnances des Rois.

cruelties and tyranny of the Inquisition, and of Fulk of St. George, the head of that awful tribunal. This arraignment, while it appeared to strike at the abuses, condemned the Office itself. "Complaints have reached us from all quarters, from Prelates and Barons, that Brother Fulk, the Inquisitor of heretical offences, has encouraged those errors and crimes which it is his function to extirpate. Under the pretext of law he has violated all law; under the semblance of piety, committed acts of the grossest impiety and inhumanity; under the plea of defending the Catholic faith, done deeds at which the minds of men revolt with horror. There is no bound to his exactions, oppressions, and charges against our faithful subjects. In defiance of the canonical rules, he begins his processes by arrest and torture, by torture new and unheard of. Those whom, according to his caprice, he accuses of having denied Christ or attacked the foundations of the faith, he compels by these tortures to make false admissions of guilt; if he cannot compel their inflexible innocence to confess guilt, he suborns false witnesses against them." This was the Ordinance of the King who cruelly seized and tortured the Templars!

The winter passed in vain overtures for reconciliation. Each sought to strengthen himself by new alliances; Philip by concessions to his people, extorted partly by the unprosperous state of affairs in Flanders, and from the desire to make his personal quarrel with the Pope a national affair.* As the year advanced, Philip pressed the conclusion of the peace with England; it was ratified at Paris. Philip re-

* *Ordonnances des Rois*, i. 340. *Hist. de Languedoc, Preuves*, No. 54, p. 118.

* *Siamondi, Hist. des Français*, ix. 104.

signed Aquitaine on the due performance of homage by England. The Pope suddenly forgot all the crimes and contumacy of Albert of Austria. The ^{May 20, 1303.} murderer of his predecessor, he, against whom Boniface himself had excited the ecclesiastical electors to rebellion, became a devout and prudent son, who had humbly submitted, not to the judgement, but to the clemency of his father, and had offered to prove himself innocent of the misdeed imputed to him, and to undergo such penance as should be imposed upon him by the Holy See. The Pope wrote to the Princes of the Empire, commanding them to render their allegiance to Albert; and it suited the present policy of Albert to obtain the Empire on any terms. At Nurem- ^{July 17, 1303.} berg he promulgated a golden Bull, sealed with the Imperial seal, in which he acknowledged, in terms as full as ever had been extorted from the most humiliated of his predecessors, that the Roman Empire had been granted to Charlemagne by the Apostolic See; that though the King of the Romans was chosen by certain temporal and ecclesiastical Electors, the temporal sword derived all its authority from the oath of allegiance to the Pope. The protection of the Church was the first and paramount duty of the Emperor. He swore to guard the Pope against any injury to life or limb; and though it was the customary phrase, yet it is curious that he swore also, as if the scene at Anagni might be foreseen distinctly, to guard from capture and imprisonment.⁷ He swore too that the Pope's enemies should be his enemies, of whatever rank or dignity, Kings or Emperors. The eagerness with which Albert of Austria detached himself from the alliance of

⁷ "Capi mala captivitate," Compare Raynald, sub ann. 1303

the King of France, though cemented by marriage, the profound humility of his language, was not calculated to diminish the haughty confidence of Boniface in the awe still inspired by the Papal power.* Boniface had the prudence to secure himself against the French interest in Italy: he consented at length to permit the King of Naples to rest content with the throne of that kingdom, and to acknowledge Frederick of Arragon as King of Trinacria. Charles of Valois had returned to France to assist his brother in the wars of Flanders.

Philip, on his side, was preparing certain popular acts, which were to be proclaimed at the same great assembly in the Louvre before which he had determined to appeal to his subjects against the encroachments of the Pope. Yet for a time he had been even more deeply wounded by his unavenged discomfiture by the Flemings, and he had not therefore altogether abandoned the thought of pacification with the Pope. It can hardly have been unauthorised by the King, that the Count of Alençon and the Bishop of Auxerre, one of the Prelates who had obeyed the citation to Rome, had held out hopes that the King was not averse to an amicable settlement. Accordingly John Le Moine, The Papal Legate at Paris. Cardinal of S. Marcellinus and S. Peter, a native of Picardy, appeared in the Court at Paris. But the mission of the Legate was not one of peace. Boniface must have miscalculated most grievously both the blow inflicted by the Flemings on the power of Philip, and the strength derived by himself from his Ghibelline alliance with the Emperor. The

* Velly, Coxe, and others write confidently of the offer of the French crown to Albert; with Siemoni, I can discover no trace of this in the contemporary documents,

Legate was instructed first to summon those Prelates, the King's partisans, who had not made their appearance at Rome, to obey the Pope without delay, and hasten to the feet of his Holiness, under the penalty of immediate deposition. These Prelates were the Archbishops of Sens and Narbonne, the Bishops of Soissons, Beauvais, and Meaux, with the Abbot of St. Denis. The Archbishop of Rouen, the Bishops of Paris, Amiens, Langres, Poitiers, and Bayeux had alleged their age and infirmity. The Pope condescended to admit their excuse. So too were excused the Italian Bishop of Arras, who was of such tried loyalty to the Pope (was he employed in keeping up the correspondence of which Boniface was accused with the revolted Flemings?), and the Bishop and Chapter of Laon, on account of some heavy charges which they had borne.

The Legate had twelve Articles which he was to offer to the King for his immediate and peremptory assent; articles of absolute and humiliating concession on his part, on that of the Pope of unyielding rigour, if not of insulting menace or more insulting clemency. I. The revocation of the King's inhibitory Edict against the ecclesiastics who had gone to Rome in obedience to the Papal citation, full satisfaction to all who had undergone penalties, the abrogation of all processes instituted against them in the King's Courts. II. The Pope asserted his inherent right to collate to all benefices; no layman could collate without authority from the Apostolic See. III. The Pope had full right to send Legates to any part of Christendom. IV. The administration and distribution of all ecclesiastical property and revenue is in the Pope alone, not in any other person, ecclesiastic or lay. The Pope has power, without asking the assent of any one to, lay

Twelve
Articles.

on them any charge he may please. V. No King or Prince can seize the goods of any ecclesiastic, nor compel any ecclesiastic to appear in the King's Courts to answer to any personal action or for any property not held as a fief of the Crown. VI. The King was to give satisfaction for his contumelious act in burning the Papal Bull to which were appended the images of the Apostles St. Peter and St. Paul. VII. The King is not to abuse what is called the Regale, the custody and guardianship of vacant benefices. VIII. The spiritual sword (judicature) is to be restored to the Prelates and other ecclesiastics. IX. The King is no longer to blind himself to the iniquity of the debasement of the coin, and the damage thus wrought on the Prelates, Barons, and Clergy of the realm. X. The King is to call to mind the misdeeds and excesses charged upon him in our private letters by our notary.* XI. The city of Lyons is entirely independent of the King of France. XII. The Pope, unless the King amended and corrected all these misdoings, would at once proceed against him spiritually and temporally.

The King answered each separate Article: and his answers seem to imply some apprehension that his power was shaken, some disinclination to proceed to extremities. He stooped to evasion, perhaps more than evasion. I. The King denied that the inhibition to his subjects to quit the realm was aimed at the Prelates summoned to Rome. It was a general precautionary inhibition to prevent the exportation of the riches and produce of the realm during the war and the revolt of his Flemish vassals. II. The King

The King's
answer.

* *Liters Clausæ.* James the notary was, I presume, the Archdeacon of Narbonne.

demanding no more, with regard to the collation of benefices, than had been enjoyed by St. Louis and his other royal predecessors. III. The King had no wish to prohibit the reception of the Papal Legates, unless suspected persons and on just grounds. IV. The King had no design to interfere with the administration of the property of the Church, except so far as was warranted by his rights and by ancient custom. V. and VIII. So as to the seizure of the goods of the Church. The King intends nothing beyond law and usage. He is fully prepared to give the Church the free use of the spiritual sword in all cases where the Church has competent jurisdiction. To the VIth Article, the burning of the Bull, the answer is most extraordinary. The King affects to suppose that the Pope alludes not to the Bull publicly burned at Paris with sound of trumpet, but to that of a Bull relating to the Chapter of Laon, burned on account of its invalidity. VII. The King denies the abuse of the Regale. IX. The debasement of the coin took place on account of the exigencies of the State. It was a prerogative exercised by all Kings of France, and the King was engaged in devising a remedy for the evil. XI. The King had interfered in the affairs of Lyons, on account of a dangerous feud between the Archbishop and the people. The Archbishop, he averred, owed to him an oath of fealty, which had been refused, nevertheless he was prepared to continue his good offices. XII. The King earnestly desired that the unity and peace which had so long subsisted between the kingdom of France and the Roman See should be restored: he was prepared to act by the counsel of the Dukes of Bretagne and Burgundy. To these the Pope himself had proposed to submit all their differences.

With these answers of the King the Pope declared

himself utterly dissatisfied. Some were in absolute defiance of truth, none consonant with justice.

April 13.

He would endure martyrdom rather than submit to such degrading conditions. But the same messengers which bore the Pope's instructions to the Cardinal of S. Marcellinus to appeal again to the King's Council were the bearers of another Brief. That Brief

The King
excommunicated.

declared that Philip, King of France, notwithstanding his royal dignity, and notwithstanding any privilege or indulgence, had actually incurred the penalties of the general Excommunication published by the Pope; that he was excommunicate for having prohibited the Bishops of France from attending, according to the Pope's command, at Rome. All ecclesiastics, of whatever rank, even Bishops or Archbishops, who should presume to celebrate mass before the King, preach, administer any of the sacraments, or hear confession, were likewise excommunicate. This sentence was to be proclaimed in all convenient places within the realm. The King's confessor, Nicolas, a Friar Preacher, had

May.

orders to fix a peremptory term of three months for the King's submission, for his personal appearance at Rome, to be dealt with according to his deserts, and, if he were able, to prove his innocence.

But already, above a month before the date of these Briefs, the King had held his Parliament at the Louvre. March 12. the Louvre in Paris. The Prelates and Barons had been summoned to take counsel on affairs touching the welfare of the realm. Only two Archbishops, Sens and Narbonne, three Bishops, Meaux, Nevers, and Angers,^b obeyed the royal summons; but the Barons made up an imposing assemblage. Before this audi-

^b So writes Simondi. It is Antessiodor in the document; but the Bishop of Auxerre was possibly still in Rome.

ence appeared William of Nogaret, one of the great lawyers, most eminent in the King's favour. Nogaret was born in the diocese of Toulouse, of a race whose blood had been shed by the Inquisition.* The Nemesis of that awful persecution was about to wreak itself on the Papacy. Nogaret had become a most distinguished Professor of Civil Law and Judge of Beaucaire: he had been ennobled by Philip the Fair. It is dangerous to crush hereditary religion out of men's hearts. Law and the most profound devotion to the King had become the religion of Nogaret. He was a man without fear, without scruple; perhaps thought that he was only inflicting just retribution on the persecutors of his ancestors. According to the accustomed form, William of Nogaret began his address to the Assembly with a text of Scripture. "There were false prophets among the people, so among you are masters of lies."^a These are the words of Saint Peter, and in the chair of Saint Peter sits the master of lies, ill-named the doer of good (Boniface), but rather the doer of evil.^b Boniface (he went on) had usurped the Holy See; he had wedded the Roman Church, while her lawful husband, Coelastine, was alive; him he had compelled to an unlawful abdication by fraud and violence. Nogaret laid down, in strict legal phrase, four propositions:—I. That the Pope was not the true Pope. II. That he was a heretic. III. Was a notorious Simoniac: IV. A man weighed down with crimes—pride, iniquity, treachery, rapacity—an insupportable load and burthen to the Church. He appealed to a General Council: he declared it to be the office and function of the King of France to summon such Council. "Before that Council he was

* Philip's edict against the Inquisition was probably suggested by Nogaret.

^a S. Peter, Epist. ii. 21,

^b Maleficus.

prepared to appear and to substantiate all these charges." The public notaries made record of these accusations, advanced in the presence of the two Archbishops and the three Bishops, of many princes and nobles, whose names were recited in the decree of record.

Philip, to attach all orders of his subjects to the throne during this imminent crisis, and perhaps
Ordinance of Reformation. to divert the minds of men from the daring blow, the arraignment of a Pope before a General Council, had prepared his great Ordinance for the reformation of the realm. The Ordinance was manifestly designed for the especial conciliation of the clergy. All churches and monasteries, all prelates and ecclesiastics, were to be held in the grace and favour of the King, as of his religious ancestors: their immunities and privileges were to be respected, as in the time of St. Louis: all good and ancient customs were to be maintained; all new and bad ones annulled. The right of the King to seize or confiscate the goods of the clergy was indeed asserted, but in guarded and temperate terms. The Regale was not to be abused, and (a curious illustration of the mode of life) the fishponds of the ecclesiastics were not to be drained during the time of vacancy. Ecclesiastics coming to the King's Court were to be immediately heard, that they might return to their sacred charge. No fees were to be received by the King's officers from ecclesiastics.*

The Ordinance for the reformation of the realm was skilfully designed to cover the extension of the royal power by the extension of the royal jurisdiction: yet it professed to respect all separate jurisdictions of Prelates and Barons; it was content to supersede them without

* *Ordonnances des Rois de France*, vol. i. sub anno.

violence. Two Parliaments were to be held yearly at Paris, two Exchequer Courts at Rouen, two Days at Troyes, one Parliament at Toulouse. No doubt Philip's jurists intended thus, without alarming the feudal Lords, quietly to draw within their own sphere almost the whole business of the realm. Their more profound science, the more authoritative power of executing their sentences, the greater regularity of their proceedings, would give to the King's Courts and to those of the Parliaments every advantage over that of the Bishop or of the Baron. As though the King were disposed to win the affections of every class of his people, there are in the Ordinance special instructions to the royal officers to execute their functions with moderation and gentleness.^g The Crown was absolutely compelled to the harsh and unwelcome duty of levying taxes by the disloyalty and rebellion of some of its subjects. Not only were the King's bailiffs and seneschals to be thus courteous and forbearing, even the serjeants were to be mild and soft-spoken.^h

The Pope had either not heard, or disdained to regard, what he might yet esteem the impotent audacity of William of Nogaret, and the audience given to his unprecedented requisition by the Parliament held in the Louvre. In his letter, dated one month after, to the Cardinal of S. Marcellinus, in which he rejected the replies of Philip to his demands, there is no allusion to this glaring insult. But the King of France had early intimation of the contents of the Papal letters, which commanded the Cardinal of S. Marcellinus to declare

^g "C'est assavoir que vous devez être avisés de parler au peuple par douces paroles, et démonstrer les grans désobéissances, rebellions, et dommages."—Ibid.

^h "Et vous avisez de mettre Serjeans débonnaires et tractables pour faire vos exécutions, si que il n'aient cause de eux doloir."—Ordonnance.

him actually excommunicate.¹ The bearers of these letters were the Archdeacon of Coutances and Nicolas Benefracto, a servant of the Cardinal. It is said that, in the pride of being employed on such important services, they betrayed the secret of their despatches. "They bore that which would make the King tremble on his throne." Orders were given to the King's officers to arrest them: they were seized and thrown into prison at Troyes. Certain other priests boasted that they had been permitted to take copies of these Briefs, and were promulgating them in order to stir up the people to insurrection. The Cardinal protested, and imperiously demanded the delivery of the Briefs into his hands. The Edict confiscating the goods of the Bishops who had attended the Synod at Rome was renewed, if not put in execution. The Order which convoked again the States-General, to take counsel on the crimes and disabilities of his master the Pope, was fixed on the walls of the Monastery of St. Martin at Tours, where the Legate was lodged. All his movements were watched; he could neither receive a visit nor a single paper without the King's knowledge. He determined to return to Rome, mortified and humbled by the total failure of his mission, which he had been instructed to carry out with such imposing haughtiness. No doubt he had acted up to those instructions.

The States-General held their second meeting in the

¹ The succession of events, on which much depends, is by no means clear. Velly places the mission of Cardinal Le Moine, the articles offered by him, the elaborate answer of the King, after the Parliament in the Louvre, in which William of Nogaret appeared (March 12). The Pope's letter to the Cardinal expressing his dissatisfaction at

Philip's answers, as contained in the Cardinal's to Rome which he had then received, is dated April 13. The mission, the reception by Philip, the offer of the articles, the time for the deliberate reply, the communication of the result to Rome, the Pope's letter, could not possibly have been concluded in a month,

Louvre on the 13th of June. Louis Count of Evreux, Guy Count of St. Pol, John Count of Dreux, William of Plasian, Knight and Lord of Vezennoble (Peter Flotte, the Chancellor, had fallen at Courtrai, William of Nogaret was elsewhere), presented themselves before the Assembly, and declared that Christendom was in the utmost danger and misery through the misrule of Boniface; that a lawful Pope was necessary for her salvation; that Boniface was laden with crimes. William of Plasian swore upon the Gospels that these charges were true; that he was prepared to prove them before a General Council; that the King, as champion of the faith, was compelled to summon such Council. It was no less the duty of the Prelates and Nobles to concur in this measure. The Prelates observed that it was an affair of the gravest import, and required mature deliberation. The next day William of Plasian produced his charges, charges of the most monstrous heresy, infidelity, and, what was perhaps worse, wizardry, and dealing with evil spirits; charges against a Pope who for nearly nine years had exercised the full authority of St. Peter's successor; a man now in extreme old age, whose life and stern inflexible orthodoxy had been till now above question; who had been the chosen arbiter of Kings in their quarrels; who had been almost adored at the Jubilee by assenting Christendom; who was even at this time bestowing the Imperial crown, accepted by Albert of Austria with the humblest gratitude. These charges were advanced with a solemn appeal to the Holy Gospels, before the King and the nobility of France, before a great body of ecclesiastics, who, so far from repudiating them at once with indignant impatience, admitted them as the groundwork of a process to be submitted to a General Council of all

Second Par-
liament in
the Louvre,
June 13

Christendom: this Council there seems no reasonable doubt was in the actual contemplation, and was deliberately determined on by Philip and his advisers. The articles of accusation cannot be judged without the examination of their startling, repulsive, even loathsome detail: they must be seen too in their strange confusion. The Pope neither believed the immortality nor the incorruptibility of the human soul, it perished with the body. He did not believe in eternal life; he had averred that it was no sin to indulge the body in all pleasures; he had publicly declared and preached that he had rather be a dog, an ass, or any brute beast, than a Frenchman; that no Frenchman had a soul which could deserve everlasting happiness: this he had taught to persons on their deathbeds. He did not believe in the Real Presence in the Eucharist. He was reputed (all these things were advanced as matters of public fame and scandal) to have averred that fornication and other obscene practices were no sin. He had often said that to depress the King of France and the French he would devote himself, the world, and the Church to ruin. "Perish the French, come what may." He had approved a book written by a physician, Arnold of Villeneuve, which had been condemned by the Bishop and the Masters of Theology in Paris as heretical. He had caused, to perpetuate his damnable memory, silver images of himself to be set up in the churches, to which the people were tempted to pay idolatrous worship. "He has a special familiar devil, whose counsels he follows in all things." ^k He is

^k This afterwards grew into a minute detail of all the famous wizards and sorcerers from whom he had obtained many different familiar spirits with whom he dealt: one was in a ring which he always wore, but offered to the King of Naples, who rejected the gift with pious abhorrence.

a sortilege, and consults diviners and fortune-tellers. He has declared that Popes cannot commit simony, which declaration is heresy. He keeps a market by one Simon, an usurer, of ecclesiastical dignities and benefices. Contrary to Christ's charge to his Apostles, "My peace I leave with you," he has constantly stirred up and fomented discords and wars. On one occasion, when two parties had agreed to terms of peace, Boniface inhibited them and said, "If the Son of God or Peter the Apostle had descended upon earth and given such precept, I would have replied, 'I believe you not.'" Like certain heretics who assert themselves to be the only true Christians, he called all others, especially that most Christian people the French, Paterins. He was a notorious sodomite. He had caused the murder of many clerks in his own presence, and urged his officers to their bloody work, saying, "Strike home! strike home!" He had refused the Eucharist, as unnecessary, to a nobleman in prison in his last agony. He had compelled priests to reveal confessions. He did not observe the Fasts of the Church, not even Lent. He depresses and always has depressed the whole Order of Cardinals, the Black and the White Monks, the Franciscan and Preaching Friars: he calls them all hypocrites. He never utters a good word, but words of scorn, lying reproach, and detraction against every bishop, monk, or ecclesiastic. He has conceived an old and implacable hatred against the King of France, and owned that he would subvert Christianity if he might humble what he calls the pride of the French. He has granted the tenths of his realm to the King of England, on condition of his waging war on France; he has leagued with Frederick of Arragon against the French King of Naples; he has granted the Empire to Albert of Austria,

whom he had so long treated as unduly elected, as a traitor, and as a murderer, with the avowed purpose of employing him to crush the pride of the French. The Holy Land is lost through his fault; he has diverted the subsidies raised for the Christians of the Holy Land to enrich his kindred. He is the fountain and ground of all simony; he has reduced all prelates and ecclesiastics to servitude, and loaded them with taxation; the wealth he has extorted from Christendom he has lavished on his own family, whom he has raised to the rank of counts and barons, and in building fortresses on the lands of Roman nobles, whom he has cruelly oppressed and driven into exile. He has dissolved many lawful marriages; he has promoted his nephew, a man of notoriously profligate life, to the Cardinalate, forced that nephew's wife to take a vow of chastity, and himself begotten upon her two bastard sons. He treated his holy predecessor Coelestine with the utmost inhumanity, and caused his death. He has privately made away in prison with many others who denied his lawful election to the Papacy. To the public scandal he has allowed many nuns to return to a worldly life. He has also said that in a short time he would make all the French martyrs or apostates. Lastly, he seeks not the salvation, but the perdition of souls.^m

Each of these separate articles was declared to rest on public fame and notoriety, and so the accuser might seem in some degree to guard himself against personal responsibility for their truth. Still it is almost inconceivable how even such bold men, so fully possessed of the royal favour, could venture on some of these charges, so flagrantly false. The Colonnas, no doubt, whose

^m Compare for all this Dupuy, Prouven.

wrongs were not forgotten, some of whom will soon be discovered in active league with Philip's Jurists, had disseminated these rumours of the Pope's tyrannies and cruel misdeeds in Italy, not improbably the enormities charged on his private life. The coarse artifice (skill it cannot be called) with which the vanity of the French nation is constantly appealed to; the accumulation on one man of all the accusations which could be imagined as most odious to mankind; were not merely ominous of danger to Boniface himself, but signs of the declining awe of the Popedom beyond the walls of Rome, beyond the confines of Italy. William of Plasian solemnly protested that he was actuated by no hatred or passion; in the most formal manner he declared his adhesion to the appeal before made by William of Nogaret.

The King commanded his own appeal to be read. "We, Philip, King of France, having heard the charges now alleged by William of Plasian, King Philip's appeal. as heretofore by William of Nogaret, against Boniface, now presiding over the Roman Church; though we had rather cover the shame of our father with our garment, yet in the fervour of our Catholic faith, and our devotion to the Holy See, and to our Mother the Church, for which our ancestors have not hesitated to risk their lives, we cannot but assent to these requisitions: we will use our utmost power for the convocation of a General Council, in order to remove these scandals from the Church; and we call upon and entreat, in the bowels of mercy in Jesus Christ, all you archbishops, bishops, and prelates, to join us in promoting this General Council; and lest the aforesaid Boniface should utter sentences of excommunication or interdict, or any act of spiritual violence against us, our realm, our churches, our prelates, our barons, or our vassals, we

appeal to this Great Council, and to a legitimate Pope."

No Churchman uttered one word of remonstrance. It might have been difficult to treat with scorn, or repel with indignation, an arraignment made with such formal solemnity; accusations openly recognised by the King as grave and serious subjects of inquiry. The Jurists had taken care that all was conducted according to unexceptionable rules of procedure. The prelates veiled their weak compliance with the King's wishes, their assent to the unusual act of permitting a Pope to be arraigned as a criminal for the most hateful and loathsome offences and denounced before a General Council, under the specious plea of the necessity of investigation into such fearful scandals, and the pious hope that the innocence of Boniface would appear. To this assent were signed the names of five archbishops—Nicosia (in Cyprus), a Frenchman by birth, Rheims, Sens, Narbonne, Tours; of twenty-one bishops—Laon, Beauvais, Chalons-sur-Marne, Auxerre, Meaux, Nevers, Chartres, Orleans, Amiens, Terouanne, Senlis, Angers, Avranches, Coutances, Evreux, Lisieux, Seez, Clermont, Limoges, Puy, Macon (afterwards St. Omer, Boulogne, Ypres); eleven of the great abbots—Clugny, Premontre, Marmoutier, Citeaux, St. Denis, Compiègne, St. Victor, St. Geneviève, St. Martin de Laon, Figeac, Beaulieu; the Visitors of the Orders of the Temple and of St. John."

" Dupuy, *Preuves*. Baillet published a special appeal of the Archbishop of Narbonne containing ten charges against the Pope, in substance much the same with those of De Plasian, but darkening the charge of immorality into his having seduced two of his married nieces, by whom

he had many children. "O patrem fecundum!" It is said that this appeal was made in the States-General at the Louvre. Baillet found it among the Brienne papers; but what proof is there of its authenticity? Baillet, *Démêlés*, *Additions des Preuves*, p. 29.

The King was not content with this general suffrage of the States-General, nor even with the mutual guarantee entered into between himself, the ecclesiastics, and the barons of France, to stand by each other and co-operate in holding the General Council; in permitting no excommunication or interdict to be published within the realm, and to pay no regard to any mandate or Bull of the Pope. He appealed severally to all the ecclesiastical and monastic bodies of the realm. General adhesion of the kingdom. He obtained seven hundred acts of adhesion from bishops, chapters, conventual bodies, and the Orders of friars. Of the numerous houses of the Cluniacs, seven only refused, eleven sent evasive answers. All who had hitherto been the most ardent and servile partisans of the Popedom, the Preachers the Sons of St. Dominic, the Minorites the Sons of St. Francis, the Templars and Hospitallers, were for the King. The University of Paris gave in its unqualified concurrence to the royal demands. Philip sent his appeal into some of the neighbouring kingdoms. All these gave at least their tacit assent to the arraignment of the Pope before a General Council; some, no doubt, reconciled it to their conscience by doubts as to the validity of the election of Boniface, and his title to be considered a lawful Pope: all were careful that the appeal lay not merely to the Council, but to a future lawful Pope; all protested their fervent reverence and attachment to the Church, their loyalty to the See of Rome.

The Pope had retired, as usual, from the summer heats, perhaps not without mistrust of the Romans, to his native city, Anagni. There, in a public consistory, he purged himself by oath of the charge of heresy; the more scandalous accusations against his life and morals he disdained to notice. In

Boniface at
Anagni
Consistory
Aug 18.

the Bull issued from that consistory, he declared that he had received intelligence of the proceedings of the King and the Barons in the Louvre, of their appeal to a General Council, to a future lawful Pope, of their proclamation that they would receive neither legate nor letter from him, and their renunciation of all obedience. "With what sincerity, with what charity, with what zeal, this conventicle had acted, might be understood, by all who value truth, from the blasphemies which they had poured forth against him, and the open reception of his deadly enemy, Stephen Colonna." "They have lyingly blasphemed us with lying blasphemies, charging us with heresy, and with other monstrous criminalities over which they have affected to weep. Who in all the world has heard that we have been suspected of the taint of heresy? Which of our race, who in all Campania, has been branded with such a name? We were sound Catholics when He received favours from us. Valentinian the Emperor humbled himself before the Bishop of Milan: the King of France is as much below the Emperor as we are above the Bishop of Milan. The state of the Church will be utterly subverted, the power of the Roman Pontiff annihilated, if such kings and princes, when the Roman Pontiff shall think it right to inflict correction upon them, shall presume to call him a heretic or of notoriously scandalous life, and so escape censure. This pernicious example must be cut up by the roots. Without us no General Council can be held. Henceforth no king, no prince, or other magnate of France shall dare, by the example of the King, to break out in words of blasphemy, and thus hope to elude due correction. Not to name the King of France deposed by Pope Zacharias, did Theodosius the Great, excommunicated by St.

Ambrose, kindle into wrath? Did the glorious Lothair lift up his heel against Pope Nicolas? or Frederick against Innocent?" In proper time and place he, Boniface, would proceed to the extreme censure, unless full satisfaction should be offered, lest the blood of Philip should be required at his hands.*

The stress laid upon the reception of Stephen Colonna shows that Boniface knew whence sprung much of the most desperate hostility to his fame and authority. He was peculiarly indignant at the presumption of the Archbishop of Nicosia, whom he had ordered, and again ordered in a separate Bull, to return to his diocese, and not to presume to meddle in the affairs of France. A third Bull, to punish the prelates who had been seduced into rebellion by the King, suspended in all the ecclesiastical corporations the right of election, declared all vacant benefices at the sole disposal of the Pope, annulled all elections made during this suspension, and until the King should have returned to his obedience. A fourth deprived the Universities of the right of teaching, of granting any degree in theology, canon or civil law. This privilege the Pope declared to be derived entirely from the Apostolic See, and to have been forfeited by their rebellious adhesion to the cause of the King.†

Boniface seemed, as it were, to pause, to be gathering up his strength to launch the last crushing ^{Excommu-}thunders upon the head of the contumacious ^{nication} King. The sentence of excommunication had been prepared; it had received the Papal Seal. It began with more than the usual solemnity and haughtiness. "We who sit on the high throne of St. Peter, the vicerent of Him to whom the Father said, 'Thou art my

* The Bull in Dupuy and Raynaldus, sub ann.

† Preuves. Raynaldus
L 2

Son, this day have I begotten thee,' 'Ask of me, I will give Thee the nations as Thine inheritance, and the uttermost parts of the earth as Thy possession: to bruise kings with a rod of iron, and to break them in pieces like a potter's vessel.' An awful admonition to kings! But the unlimited power of St. Peter has ever been exercised with serene lenity." The Bull then recapitulates all the chief causes of the quarrel: the prohibition of the bishops to attend the Papal summons to Rome; the missions of James de Normannis Archdeacon of Narbonne, and of the Cardinal of St. Marcellinus rejected with scorn (it is silent as to the burning of the Bull), the seizure and imprisonment of Nicolas de Benefractio, the bearer of the Papal letters; the entertainment of Stephen Colonna at the Court in Paris. The King of France was declared excommunicate; his subjects released from their allegiance, or rather peremptorily inhibited from paying him any acts of obedience; all the clergy were forbidden, under pain of perpetual disability, to hold preferment, from receiving benefices at his hands; all such appointments were void, all leagues were annulled, all oaths abrogated, "and this our Bull is ordered to be suspended in the porch of the Cathedral of Anagni." The 8th of September was the fatal day.^a

Boniface, infatuated by the sense of his unapproachable majesty, and of the sanctity of his office, had taken no precautions for the safeguard of his person. He could not but know that his two deadliest enemies, William of Nogaret, the most daring of Philip's legal counsellors, and Sciarra Colonna, the most fierce and desperate of the house which he had

William of
Nogaret and
Sciarra
Colonna.

^a Preuves, p. 182.

driven to desperation, had been for several months in Italy, on the Tuscan borders at no great distance from Rome. They were accompanied by Musciatto dei Francesi, in whose castle of Staggia, not far from Sienna, they had taken up their abode. They had unlimited power to draw on the Panizzi, the merchant bankers of the King of France at Florence. To the simple peasantry they held out that their mission was to reconcile the Pope with the King of France; others supposed that they were delegated to serve upon the Pope the citation to appear before the General Council. They bought with their gold many of the petty barons of Romagna. They hired to be at their command a band of the lawless soldiery who had been employed in the late wars. They had their emissaries in Anagni; some even of the Cardinals had not been inaccessible to their dark intrigues.

On a sudden, on the 7th September (the 8th was the day for the publication of the Bull), the peaceful streets of Anagni were disturbed. The Pope and the Cardinals, who were all assembled around him, were startled with the trampling of armed horse, and the terrible cry, which ran like wildfire through the city, "Death to Pope Boniface! Long live the King of France!" Sciarra Colonna, at the head of three hundred horsemen, the Barons of Cercano and Supino, and some others, the sons of Master Massio of Anagni, were marching in furious haste, with the banner of the King of France displayed. The ungrateful citizens of Anagni, forgetful of their pride in their holy compatriot, of the honour and advantage to their town from the splendour and wealth of the Papal residence, received them with rebellious and acclaiming shouts.

The bell of the city, indeed, had tolled at the first

alarm; the burghers had assembled; they had chosen their commander; but that commander, whom they ignorantly or treacherously chose, was Arnulf, a deadly enemy of the Pope. The banner of the Church was unfolded against the Pope by the captain of the people of Anagni.* The first attack was on the palace of the Pope, on that of the Marquis Gaetani, his nephew, and those of three Cardinals, the special partisans of Boniface. The houses of the Pope and of his nephew made some resistance. The doors of those of the Cardinals were beaten down, the treasures ransacked and carried off; the Cardinals themselves fled from the backs of the houses through the common sewer. Then arrived, but not to the rescue, Arnulf, the Captain of the People; he had perhaps been suborned by Reginald of Supino. With him were the sons of Chiton, whose father was pining in the dungeons of Boniface.[†] Instead of resisting, they joined the attack on the Palace of the Pope's nephew and his own. The Pope and his nephew implored a truce; it was granted for eight hours. This time the Pope employed in endeavouring to stir up the people to his defence: the people coldly answered that they were under the command of their Captain. The Pope demanded the terms of the conspirators. "If the Pope would save his life, let him instantly restore the Colonna Cardinals to their dignity, and reinstate the whole house in their honours and possessions; after this restoration the Pope must abdicate, and leave his body at the disposal of Sciarra." The Pope groaned in the depths of his heart. "The word is spoken." Again the assailants thundered at the gates of the palace;

* Statement of William of Nogaret. Dupuy, p. 247. I see no reason to doubt this.

† The Chiton of Walsingham is probably the Massio of Villani.

still there was obstinate resistance. The principal church of Anagni, that of Santa Maria, protected the Pope's palace. Sciarra Colonna's lawless band set fire to the gates; the church was crowded with clergy and laity and traders who had brought their precious wares into the sacred building. They were plundered with such rapacity that not a man escaped with a farthing.

The Marquis found himself compelled to surrender, on the condition that his own life, those of his family and of his servants, should be spared. At these sad tidings the Pope wept bitterly. The Pope was alone; from the first the Cardinals, some from treachery, some from cowardice, had fled on all sides, even his most familiar friends: they had crept into the most ignoble hiding-places. The aged Pontiff alone lost not his self-command. He had declared himself ready to perish in his glorious cause; he determined to fall with dignity. "If I am betrayed like Christ, I am ready to die like Christ." He put on the stole of St. Peter, the imperial crown was on his head, the keys of St. Peter in one hand and the cross in the other: he took his seat on the Papal throne, and, like the Roman Senators of old, awaited the approach of the Gaul.^t

But the pride and cruelty of Boniface had raised and infixed deep in the hearts of men passions which acknowledged no awe of age, of intrepidity, or religious majesty. In William of Nogaret the blood of his Tolosan ancestors, in Colonna the wrongs, the degradation, the beggary, the exile of all his house, had extinguished every feeling but revenge. They insulted him with contumelious reproaches; they menaced his life. The Pope answered not a word. They insisted that he should at

^t Villani. *in loc.*

once abdicate the Papacy. "Behold my neck, behold my head," was the only reply. But fiercer words passed between the Pope and William of Nogaret. Nogaret threatened to drag him before the Council of Lyons, where he should be deposed from the Papacy. 'Shall I suffer myself to be degraded and deposed by Paterins like thee, whose fathers were righteously burned as Paterins?' William turned fiery red, with shame thought the partisans of Boniface, more likely with wrath. Sciarra, it was said, would have slain him outright: he was prevented by some of his own followers even by Nogaret. "Wretched Pope, even at this distance the goodness of my Lord the King guards thy life."^a

He was placed under close custody, not one of his own attendants permitted to approach him. Worse indignities awaited him. He was set on a vicious horse, with his face to the tail, and so led through the town to his place of imprisonment. The palaces of the Pope and of his nephew were plundered; so vast was the wealth, that the annual revenues of all the kings in the world would not have been equal to the treasures found and carried off by Sciarra's freebooting soldiers. His very private chamber was ransacked; nothing left but bare walls.

At length the people of Anagni could no longer bear the insult and the sufferings heaped upon their illustrious and holy fellow-citizen. They rose in irresistible insurrection, drove out the soldiers by whom they had been overawed, now gorged with plunder, and doubtless not unwilling to withdraw. The Pope was rescued, and led out into the street, where the old man addressed a

^a Chroniques de St. Denys.

few words to the people: "Good men and women, ye see how mine enemies have come upon me, and plundered my goods, those of the Church and of the poor. Not a morsel of bread have I eaten, not a drop have I drunk since my capture. I am almost dead with hunger.* If any good woman will give me a piece of bread and a cup of wine, if she has no wine, a little water, I will absolve her, and any one who will give me their alms, from all their sins." The compassionate rabble burst into a cry, "Long life to the Pope!" They carried him back to his naked palace. They crowded, the women especially, with provisions, bread, meat, water, and wine. They could not find a single vessel: they poured a supply of water into a chest. The Pope proclaimed a general absolution to all except the plunderers of his palace. He even declared that he wished to be at peace with the Colonnas and all his enemies. This perhaps was to disguise his intention of retiring, as soon as he could, to Rome.[†]

The Romans had heard with indignation the sacrilegious attack on the person of the Supreme Pontiff. Four hundred horse under Matteo ^{Return to Rome,} and Gaetano Orsini were sent to conduct him to the city. He entered it almost in triumph; the populace welcomed him with every demonstration of joy. But the awe of his greatness was gone; the spell of his dominion over the minds of men was broken. His over-

* According to S. Antoninus, his assailants treated him with respect, and only kept him in safe custody.

† I have drawn this account from the various authorities, the historians Villani, Walsingham, the *Chroniques de St. Denys*, and others, with the declarations of Nogaret and his partisans,

according to my own view of the trustworthiness of the statements, and the probability of the incidents. The reference to each special authority would have been almost endless and perplexing. The reader may compare Drumann, whose conscientious German industry is more particular.—P. 128 *et seqq.*

weening haughtiness and domination had made him many enemies in the Sacred College, the gold of France had made him more. This general revolt is his severest condemnation. Among his first enemies was the Cardinal Napoleon Orsini. Orsini had followed the triumphal entrance of the Pope. Boniface, to show that he desired to reconcile himself with all, courteously invited him to his table. The Orsini coldly answered "that he must receive the Colonna Cardinals into his favour; he must not now disown what had been wrung from him by compulsion." "I will pardon them," said Boniface, "but the mercy of the Pope is not to be from compulsion." He found himself again a prisoner.

This last mortification crushed the bodily, if not the mental strength of the Pope. Among the Ghibellines terrible stories were bruited abroad of his death. In an access of fury, either from poison or wounded pride, he sat gnawing the top of his staff, and at length either beat out his own brains against the wall, or smothered himself (a strange notion!) with his own pillows.² More friendly, probably more trustworthy, accounts describe him as sadly but quietly breathing his last, surrounded by eight Cardinals, having confessed the faith and received the consoling offices of the Church. The Cardinal-Poet anticipates his mild sentence from the Divine Judge.³

The religious mind of Christendom was at once perplexed and horror-stricken by this act of sacrilegious

² Ferretus Vicentinus, apud Muratori, a fierce Ghibelline.

³ "Leto prostratus, anhelus
Proenbuit, fassusque fidem, curamque
professus
Romane Ecclesie, Christo tunc redditur
animus
Spiritus, et sævi nescit jam iudicis iram."

Sed niltem placidumque patris, oen credere fas est."

Agud Muratori, S. R. I.

See in Tosti's Life the account of the exhumation of Boniface. His body is said to have appeared, after 302 years, whole and with no marks of violence.

violence on the person of the Supreme Pontiff: it shocked some even of the sternest Ghibellines. Dante, who brands the pride, the avarice, the treachery of Boniface in his most terrible words, and has consigned him to the direst doom (though it is true that his alliance with the French, with Charles of Valois, by whom the poet had been driven into exile, was among the deepest causes of his hatred to Boniface), nevertheless expresses the almost universal feeling. Christendom "shuddered to behold the Fleur-de-lis enter into Anagni, and Christ again captive in his Vicar, the mockery, the gall and vinegar, the crucifixion between living robbers, the insolent and sacrilegious cruelty of the second Pilate." ^b

^b Purgatorio, xx. 89.—

"Veggio in Alagna entrar lo fior d' aliso,
E nel vicario suo Christo esser catto;
Veggolo un'altra volta esser deriso,
Veggio rinnovellar l' aceto e l' fele,
E tra vivi ladroni essere ancelso.
Veggio il nuovo Pilato sì crudele,
Che ciò nol sazia."

Strange! to find poetry ascribed to Boniface VIII and in that poetry (an address to the Virgin) these lines.—

"Vedeo l' aceto ch' era col fiel misto
Dato a bevere al dolce Jesu Cristo,
E un gran coltello il cor le trapassava."

The poem was found in a MS. in the Vatican by Amati; it was said in the MS. that it was legible in the 15th century on the walls of S. Paolo fuori delle mura. It was given by Amati to Perticari, who published it in his Essay in Monti's *Proposta*, p. 244.

CHAPTER X.

Benedict XI.

NEVER did the Church of Rome want a calmer, more sagacious, or a firmer head: never was a time in which the boldest intellect might stand appalled, or the profoundest piety shrink from the hopeless office of restoring peace between the temporal and the spiritual power. How could the Papacy maintain its ground with safety, or recede with dignity? There seemed this fearful alternative, either to continue the strife with the King of France, with the nation, with the clergy of France; with the King of France, who had not respected the sacred person of the Pope, against whose gold and against whose emissaries in Italy no Pope was secure: with the nation, now one with the King; with the clergy of France, who had acknowledged the right of bringing the Pope before a General Council, a Council not to be held in Rome or in Italy, but in Lyons, if not in the dominions, under the control, of the King of France; among whom it could not be unknown, that new and extreme doctrines had been propagated, unrebuked, and with general acceptance.* Or, on the other

* Two remarkable writings will be found in Goldastus, *De Monarchia*, ii., which endeavoured to define the limits of the temporal and spiritual powers, asserting the entire independence and superiority of the temporal sovereign in temporal things; one by Ægidius, Archbishop of Bourges; one by John of Paris. There is an excellent summary of both in the posthumous volume of Neander's history, pp. 24-35.

hand, to disown the arrogance, the offensive language, the naked and unmeasured assertion of principles which the Pontificate was not prepared to abandon; to sacrifice the memory, to leave unproved, unpunished, the outrage on the person of Boniface. Were the Colonnas to be admitted to all the honours and privileges of the Cardinalate? the dreadful days at Anagni, the violence against Boniface, the plunder of the Papal treasures to be left (dire precedent!) in impunity? Were William of Nogaret, and Sciarra Colonna, and Reginald de Supino, and the other rebellious Barons to triumph in their unhallowed misdeeds, to revel in their impious plunder? Yet how to strike the accomplices and leave the author of the crime unscathed? Would the proud King of France abandon his loyal and devoted subjects to the Papal wrath?

Yet the Conclave,^b as though the rival factions had not time to array themselves in their natural hostility, or to provoke each other to mutual recriminations, in but a few days came, it should seem, to an unanimous suffrage. Benedict XI. Nicolas Boccasini, Bishop of Ostia, was raised to the throne of St. Peter. He was a man of humble race, born at Treviso, educated at Venice, of the Order of St. Dominic. He was of blameless morals and gentle manners. He had been employed to settle the affairs of Hungary during the contested succession for the crown: he had conducted himself with moderation and ability. He had been one of the Cardinals who adhered with unshaken fidelity to Boniface; he had witnessed, perhaps suffered in, the

^b According to Ciaconius there were eighteen Cardinals living at the time of the death of Boniface. See the list, not of course including the Colonnas. There were two Orsinis, two Gaetanis.

deplorable outrage at Anagni. He took the name of Benedict XI.

Benedict began his reign with consummate prudence yet not without the lofty assertion of the Papal power. He issued a Bull to rebuke Frederick of Arragon, the King of Trinacria, for presuming to date the acts of his reign from the time at which he had assumed the crown of Sicily, not that of the treaty in which the Pope acknowledged his title. The Arragonese prince was reminded that he held the crown but for his life, that it then passed back to the Angevine line, the French house of Naples.*

The only act which before the close of the year took cognisance of the affair of Anagni, was a Bull of excommunication not against the assailants of the Pope's person, but against the plunderers of the Papal treasures. The Archdeacon of Xaintonge was armed with full powers to persuade or to enforce their restitution. A fond hope! as if such treasures were likely to be either won or extorted from such hands. The rest of the year and the commencement of the next were occupied with remote negotiations—which, in however perilous state stood the Papacy, were never neglected by the Pope—the affairs of Norway and of the Byzantine Empire in the East.

Philip had no sooner heard of the death of Boniface and the accession of Benedict than he named
Feb. 25,
1304. his ambassadors to offer his congratulations, worded in the most flattering terms, on the elevation of Benedict. They were Berard, Lord of Marcueil, Peter de Belleperche a Canon of Chartres, a profound jurist, and, it might seem as a warning to the Pope that he

* Bull in Raynaldus, sub ann.

was determined to retract nothing, William de Plasian. But already Benedict, in his wisdom, had, un- His conciliatory measures. compelled, out of his own generous will, made all the concessions to which he was disposed, or which his dignity would endure. Already in Paris the King, the Prelates, the Barons, and people of France had been declared absolved from the excommunication under which they lay.^d During that excommunication the Pope could hold no intercourse with the King of the realm; he could receive no ambassadors from the Court.

The envoys of the King were received with civility. In the spring a succession of conciliatory April 2, 1304. edicts seemed framed in order to heal the threatened breach between the Papacy and its ancient ally, the King of France. There was nothing to offend in a kind of pardonable ostentation of condescension, kept up by the Pope, a paternal superiority which he still maintained; the King of France was to be the pious Joash, to listen to the counsels of the High Priest, Jehoiada. The censures against the prelates for contumacy in not obeying the citation to Rome were rescinded; the right of giving instruction in the civil and canon law restored to the universities. Even the affairs of the Archbishop of Narbonne and the Bishop of Pamiers, the first causes of the dispute, were brought to an amicable conclusion. All the special privileges of the Kings of France in spiritual matters were given back in the amplest and most gracious manner. The tenths on the clergy were granted for two years on

^d This was granted "absente et non petente," — Benedict's letter in Dupuy, p 207. This is confirmed by the continuator of Nangis. Compare Mansi's note in Raynaldus, ad ann. 1304. The Anagni excommunicator had not been promulgated.

account of the war in Flanders; the famous Bull "Clericis Laicos" was mitigated so as to deprive it of its injurious and offensive spirit. It permitted all voluntary subsidies, leaving the King and the clergy to determine what degree of compulsion was consistent with free-will offerings.

The Colonnas found a hearing with this calm and wise Pope. They had entreated the inter-
The Colonnas.ference of the King of France in their cause; they asserted that the Pope had no power to degrade Cardinals; that they had been deposed, despoiled, banished by the mere arbitrary mandate of Boniface, without citation, without trial, without hearing: and this by a Pope of questionable legitimacy. Their restoration by Benedict is described by himself as an act of becoming mercy: he eludes all discussion on the justice of the sentence, or the conduct of his predecessor. But their rehabilitation was full and complete, with some slight limitations. The sentence of deposition from the Cardinalate, the privation of benefices, the disability to obtain the Papacy, the attainder of the family both in the male and female line, were absolutely revoked. The restitution of the confiscated property was reserved for future arrangement with the actual possessors. Palestrina alone was not to be rebuilt or fortified; it was to remain a devoted place, and not again to become the seat of a Bishop. Even the name of Sciarra Colonna appears in this act of clemency.* William of Nogaret was the only Frenchman excepted from this comprehensive amnesty: even he was not inflexibly excluded from all hope of absolution. But the act of pardon for so heinous an offense as his

* Raynald, sub ann. 1304.

was reserved for the special wisdom and mercy of the Pope himself. In another document¹ Sciarra Colonna is joined with William of Nogaret as the yet unforgiven offenders.

Peace might seem at hand. The King of France, with every one of the great causes of quarrel thus generously removed, with such sacrifices to his wounded pride, would resume his old position as the favourite son, the close ally, the loyal protector of the Papacy. If, with a fidelity unusual in kings, in kings like Philip, he should scruple to abandon his faithful instruments, men who had not shrunk from sacrilege, hardly from murder, in his cause, yet the Pope did not seem disposed to treat even them with immitigable severity. The Pope, though honour, justice, the sanctity of the person of the Pontiff, might require that some signal mark of retribution should separate from all other criminals William of Nogaret and Sciarra Colonna, perhaps too his own rebellious barons and the inhabitants of Anagni, who rose against Boniface; yet would hardly think it necessary to drive such desperate men to worse desperation. But the profound personal hatred of Philip the Fair to Boniface VIII., or his determination still further to humiliate that power which could presume to interfere with his hard despotism, was not satiated with the death; he would pursue the memory of Boniface, and so far justify his own cruel and insulting acts by obtaining from a General Council the solemn confirmation of those strange charges on which Boniface had been arraigned by Nogaret and De Plasian.

The King determines to persecute the memory of Boniface.

Another embassy from France appeared at Rome

¹ Seen by Raynaldus. See *in loco*.

but not addressed to the Pope—Walter de Chatenay and Peter de Celle, with a notary, Peter de Piperno. According to their instructions, they visited singly and severally each of the Cardinals then resident in Rome. "The King of France," they said, "in the full Parliament of all his Prelates and Barons, from his zealous reverence for the Church and the throne of St. Peter, had determined that the Church should be ruled by a legitimate Pontiff, and not by one who so grossly abused his power as Boniface VIII. They had resolved to summon a General Council, in order that Boniface might prove his innocence (they had the effrontery to say, as they devoutly hoped!) of the accusations urged against him; and not only for that purpose, but for the good of Christendom, and (of course) for the war in the Holy Land."⁵ To each of the Cardinals was put the plain question whether he would concur in the convocation of this General Council, and promote it by his aid and countenance. Five made the cautious answer that they would deliberate with the Pope in his Consistory on this weighty matter. Five gave in their adhesion to the King of France. The same proceeding took place with six Cardinals at Viterbo. Of these four took the more prudent course; two gave their suffrage for the General Council.

Benedict XI. might think that he had carried concession far enough. He had shown his placability, he had now to show his firmness. The obstinacy of the King of France in persecuting the memory of Boniface, in pressing forward the General Council; the profound degradation of the Papacy, if a General Council should

⁵ April 8, 1304. The King could not have received the Papal edicts, but he must have known the mild disposition of Benedict.

be permitted to sit in judgement even on a dead Pope; the desecration of the Papal Holiness if any part of these foul charges should be even apparently proved; the injustice, the cowardliness of leaving the body of his predecessor to be thus torn in pieces by his rabid enemies; the well-grounded mistrust of a tribunal thus convoked, thus constituted, thus controlled; all these motives arrested the Pontiff in his conciliatory course, and unhappily disturbed the dispassionate dignity which he had hitherto maintained.

A Bull came forth against the actors in the tragedy of Anagni. Language seemed labouring to express the horror and detestation of the Pope at this "flagitious wickedness and wicked flagitiousness." Fifteen persons were named — William of Nogaret, Reginald de Supino and his son, the two sons of the man whom Boniface held in prison, Sciarra Colonna, the Anagnese who had aided them. It denounced their cruelty, their blasphemy against the Pope, their plunder of the sacred treasures. These acts had been done publicly, openly, notoriously, in the sight of Benedict himself—acts of capital treason, of rebellion, of sacrilege; crimes against the Julian law of public violence, the Cornelian against assassinations; acts of lawless imprisonment, plunder, robbery, crimes and felonies which struck men dumb with amazement. "Who is so cruel as to refrain from tears? who so hateful as to refuse compassion? What indolent and remiss judge will not rise up to punish? Who is safe, when in his native city no longer is security, his house is no longer his refuge? The Pontiff himself is thus dishonoured, and the Church thus brought into captivity with her Lord. O inexpiable guilt! O miserable Anagni, who hast endured such things! May the rain

June 7,
1304.

and the dew never fall upon thee! O most unhappy perpetrators of a crime, so adverse to the spirit of King David, who kept untouched the Lord's anointed though his foe, and avenged his death." The Bull declares excommunicate all the above-named, who in their proper persons were guilty of the crime at Anagni, and all who had aided and abetted them by succour, counsel, or favour. Philip himself could hardly stand beyond this sweeping anathema. The Pope cited these persons to appear before him on the Feast of St. Peter and

St. Paul, there to receive their sentence. The
June 29.

citation was fixed on the gates of the cathedral of Perugia. The Bull^h was promulgated on the 7th of June; on the 27th of July Benedict was dead.

The Pope had retired to Perugia from Rome—perhaps to avoid the summer heats, but no doubt also for greater security than he could command in Rome, where the Colonnas were strong, and the French party powerful through their gold. There he meditated and aimed this blow, which, by appalling the more rancorous foes of Boniface, might scare them from preying on his remains, and thus reinvest the Papacy, which had condescended far below its wont, in awe and majesty. Many of the Cardinals had remonstrated against the departure of the Pope from Rome, which was almost by stealth; it was rumoured that he thought of fixing the Papal residence in one of the Lombard cities. They had refused to accompany him. But Perugia was not more safe than Rome. It is said that while the Pope was at dinner, a young female veiled and in the dress of a novice of St. Petronilla in Perugia, offered him in a silver basin some beautiful fresh figs, of which he was very fond, as from

^h The Bull in Raynaldus, sub ann.

the abbess of that convent. The Pope, not suspecting a gift from such a hand, ate them eagerly, and without having them previously tasted.¹ That he died of poison few in that age would venture to doubt. William of Nogaret, Sciarra Colonna, Musciatto de' Francesi, the Cardinal Napoleon Orsini, were each silently arraigned as guilty of this new crime. One Ghibelline writer, hostile to Benedict, names the King of France as having suborned the butler of the Pope to perpetrate this fearful deed. Yet the disorder was a dysentery, which lasted seven or eight days, not an unusual effect of the immoderate use of rich fruit. No one thought that a death so seasonable to one party, so unseasonable to another, could be in the course of nature.

Fifteen years afterwards a Franciscan friar of Toulouse, named Bernard, was accused at Carcassonne as concerned, by magic and other black arts, in the poisoning of Benedict XI. This was not his only crime. He was charged with having excited the populace against the rival Order of the Friar Preachers and the Inquisition, of having broken open the prisons of the Inquisition, and set free the prisoners: he was charged with magic and divination, and with believing in the visions of the Abbot Joachim. He was one of the fanatic Fraticelli, seemingly a man of great daring and energy. The Ecclesiastical Judges declared that they could find no proof, either from his own mouth or from other evidence, of his concern in the poisoning of Benedict. He was condemned to perpetual imprisonment in irons. The King's advocates impeached the sentence,

¹ "Le mangiava volentieri e senza farne fare saggio."—Villani. This simple sentence of wonder, that the Pope would eat anything untasted, is frightfully expressive. viii. c. 80.

renewed the charge of his being an accomplice in the poisoning of the Pope, and demanded that he should be delivered to the secular arm. The Pope (John XXII.) aggravated the severity of his sentence by prohibiting any mitigation of his penance; but spoke very generally of his enormous crimes.^k

^k See the very curious documents in Baluzius.—*Vitæ Papæ Avinionen.* vol. ii. No. lxx.

BOOK XII.

CONTEMPORARY CHRONOLOGY.

POPEs.		EMPERORS.		KINGs OF FRANCE.		KINGs OF ENGLAND.		KINGs OF SCOTLAND.	
A.D.	A.D.	A.D.	A.D.	A.D.	A.D.	A.D.	A.D.	A.D.	A.D.
1305 Clement V.	1314	1298 Albert of Austria	1307			Edward I.	1307	1306 Robert I. (Bruce)	1329
<i>Interdum.</i>		1303 Vacant.		Philip the Fair	1314	1307 Edward II.	1327		
		1304 Henry of Luxemburg	1313	1314 Louis le Hutin					
1316 John XXII.	1334	1314 Louis of Bavaria	1347	1315 John I.					
				1316 Philip the Long	1321				
						1327 Edward III.	1377		
		(Frederick of Austria.)		1321 Charles IV. the Fair	1328	<i>Archbishops of Canterbury.</i>		1329 David II.	
1334 Benedict XII.	1342			1328 Philip of Valois	1351	1294 Robert of Winchelsey	1313		
1342 Clement VI.	1352					1313 Walter Reynolds.			
		1347 Charles IV. of Luxemburg	1378			1327 Simon Meppan.			
1352 Innocent VI.	1362			1351 John II.	1364	1333 John Stratford.			
1362 Urban V.	1370			1364 Charles IV.	1380	1348 Thomas Bradwardine.			
						1349 Simon Islip.			
1370 Gregory XI.	1378					1366 Simon Langham.			
						1367 William Whittlesey.			
						1375 Simon Sudbury.		1370 Robert II.	

KINGs OF SPAIN.		KINGs OF PORTUGAL.		KINGs OF SWEDEN.		KINGs OF POLAND.		EASTERN EMPERORS.	
A.D.	A.D.	A.D.	A.D.	A.D.	A.D.	A.D.	A.D.	A.D.	A.D.
<i>Castile.</i>		Dionysius	1325	Berger II.	1326	1305 Ladislaus IV.		Andronicus Palaeologus	1320
Ferdinand IV.	1312								
1312 Alfonso XII.	1350	1325 Alfonso IV.	1357	1328 Magnus III.		1333 Casimir the Great.		1320 Andronicus II. Palaeologus	1341
				1364 Albert.					
1350 Peter the Cruel.		1357 Peter the Cruel	1367			1370 Louis of Hungary.		1341 John V. Palaeologus.	
1369 Henry the Bastard		1367 Ferdinand I.							
<i>Aragon.</i>				KINGs OF DENMARK.					
James the Just	1327			Erick VIII.	1321				
1327 Alphonso IV.	1336			1321 Christopher	1338				
1336 Peter IV.	1380			1333 Waldemar.					

BOOK XII.

THE POPES IN AVIGNON.



CHAPTER I.

Clement V.

THE period in the Papal history has arrived which in the Italian writers is called the Babylonish captivity: it lasted more than seventy years.^a Rome is no longer the Metropolis of Christendom; the Pope is a French Prelate. The successor of St. Peter is not on St. Peter's throne; he is environed with none of the traditionary majesty or traditionary sanctity of the Eternal City; he has abandoned the holy bodies of the Apostles, the churches of the Apostles. It is perhaps the most marvellous part of its history, that the Papacy, having sunk so low, sank no lower; that it recovered its degradation; that, from a satellite, almost a slave, of the King of France, the Pontiff ever emerged again to be an independent potentate; and, although the great line of mediæval Popes, of Gregory, of Alexander III., and the Innocents, expired in Boniface VIII., that he could resume even his modified supremacy. There is no proof so strong of the vitality of the Papacy as that it could establish the law that wherever the Pope is, there is the throne of St. Peter; that he could cease to be Bishop of Rome in all but in name, and then take back again the abdicated Bishopric.

^a From 1305 to 1376.

Never was revolution more sudden, more total, it might seem more enduring in its consequences. The close of the last century had seen Boniface VIII. advancing higher pretensions, if not wielding more actual power, than any former Pontiff; the acknowledged pacificator of the world, the arbiter between the Kings of France and England, claiming and exercising feudal as well as spiritual supremacy over many kingdoms, bestowing crowns as in Hungary, awarding the Empire; with millions of pilgrims at the Jubilee in Rome, still the centre of Christendom, paying him homage which bordered on adoration, and pouring the riches of the world at his feet. The first decade of the new century is not more than half passed; Pope Clement V. is a voluntary prisoner, but not the less a prisoner, in the realm, or almost within the precincts of France; struggling in vain to escape from the tyranny of his inexorable master, and to break or elude the fetters wound around him by his own solemn engagements. He is almost forced to condemn his predecessor for crimes of which he could hardly believe him guilty; to accept a niggardly, and perhaps never-fulfilled, penance from men almost murderers of a Pope; to sacrifice, on evidence which he himself manifestly mistrusted, one of the great military orders of Christendom to the hatred or avarice of Philip. The Pope, from Lord over the freedom of the world, had ceased to be a free agent.

The short Pontificate of Benedict XI. had exasperated, rather than allayed, the divisions in the Conclave.^b

^b There were now nineteen Cardinals, according to Ciacconius, exclusive of the Colonnas. One of the former Conclaves had died. Pope Benedict had named two, the Cardinal of Prato (Ostia and Velletai), and an Englishman, Walter Winterburn of Salisbury.

The terrible fate of the two last Popes had not cooled down the eager competition for the perilous Conclave dignity. The Cardinals assembled at Perugia. The two factions, the French and that of the partisans and kindred of Boniface VIII., were headed, the latter by Matteo Orsini and Francesco Gaetani, brother of the late Pope, the former by Napoleon Orsini and the Cardinal da Prato.* The Colonna Cardinals had not yet been permitted to resume their place in the Conclave. The elder, James Colonna, had lived in seclusion, if not in concealment, at Perugia. He came forth from his hiding-place; he summoned his nephew, who had found an asylum at Padua, to his aid. They had an unlimited command of French money. But this money could hold, it could not turn, the balance between the two Orsini, each of whom aspired to be, or to create the Pope. The Conclave met, it separated, it met again; they wrangled, intrigued; each faction strove, but in vain, to win the preponderance by stubbornness or by artifice, by bribery in act or promise.¹ Months wore away. At length the people of Perugia grew weary of the delay: they surrounded the Conclave; threatened to keep the Cardinals as prisoners; demanded with loud outcries a Pope; any hour they might proceed to worse violence: by one account they unroofed the house in which the Cardinals sat, and cut off their provisions." One day the Cardinal da Prato accosted Francesco Gaetani, "We are doing sore wrong: it is an evil and a scandal to Christendom to deprive it so long of its Chief Pastor." "It rests not with us,"

* Ferretus Vicentinus, Murat. R. I. S. p. 1014. | suasio, quæque constat in donis expectata fiducia."—Ferret. Vicent.

¹ "Ut multum valet aurea per- | * Ibid. p. 4015.

replied Gaetani. "Will you accede to any reasonable scheme which may reconcile our differences?"

The Cardinal da Prato then proposed that ^{Compact.} one party should name three Ultramontane (Northern) Prelates, not of the Sacred College, on one of whom the adverse party should pledge itself to unite its suffrages. Gaetani consented, on condition that the Bonifacians should name the three Prelates. They were named; among the three the Archbishop of Bordeaux.

Bernard de Goth had been raised by Boniface VIII. from the small bishopric of Comminges to the archiepiscopal seat of Bordeaux. As a subject of the King of England, he owed only a more remote allegiance to his suzerain, the King of France.[†] He was committed in some personal hostility with Charles of Valois. Throughout the strife between the Pope and the King he had been on the Pope's side. He had withdrawn in disguise from the Court in order to obey the Pope's summons to Rome: he was among the Prelates assembled in November at Rome. If there was any Transalpine Prelate whom the kindred and friends of Boniface might suppose secure to their party, from his inclinations, his gratitude, his animosities, his former conduct, it was Bernard de Goth. But the sagacious Cardinal da Prato knew the man; he knew the Gascon character. Forty days were to elapse before the election. In eleven days a courier was in Paris. In six ^{Interview of} days more the King and the Archbishop of ^{King and} ^{Archbishop.} Bordeaux, each with a few chosen attendants, met in a forest belonging to the Monastery of St. Jean d'Angely. The secrets of that interview are related, perhaps with

[†] Yet it is said, "*Licet in Anglicæ regione præsul esset, tamen Philippo gratissimus, quod a juventute familiaris extitisset.*"--Feret. Vicent.

suspicious particularity. Yet the King, having achieved his purpose, was not likely to conceal his part in the treaty, especially from his secret counsellors, who had possibly some interest to divulge, none to conceal, the whole affair. The King began by requesting the reconciliation of the Archbishop with Charles of Valois. He then opened the great subject of the interview. He showed to the dazzled eyes of the Prelate the despatch of the Cardinal da Prato. "One word from me, and you are Pope." But the King insisted on six conditions:—I. His own full and complete reconciliation with the Church. II. The absolution of all persons whom he had employed in his strife with Boniface. III. The tenths for five years from the clergy of the realm. IV. The condemnation of the memory of Boniface. V. The reinvestment of the Colonnas in the rank and honours of the Cardinalate. The VIth and last was a profound secret, which he reserved for himself to claim when the time of its fulfilment should be come. That secret has never been fully revealed. Some have thought, and not without strong ground, that Philip already meditated the suppression of the Templars. The cautious King was not content with the acquiescence, or with the oath, of the Archbishop, an oath from which, as Pope, he might release himself. De Goth was solemnly sworn upon the Host: he gave up his brother and two nephews as hostages. Before
June 5,
1305. thirty-five days had passed, the Cardinal da Prato had secret intelligence of the compact. They proceeded to the ballot; Bernard de Goth was unanimously chosen Pope. In the Cathedral of Bordeaux he took the name of Clement V.

The first ominous warning to the Italian Prelates was a summons to attend the coronation of the new Pope,

not at Rome or in Italy, but at Lyons. The Cardinal Matteo Orsini is said to have uttered a sad vaticination: "It will be long before we behold the face of another Pope."⁸ Clement began his slow progress towards Lyons at the end of August. He passed through Agen, Toulouse, Beziers, Montpellier, and Nismes. The monasteries which were compelled to lodge and entertain the Pope and all his retinue murmured at the pomp and luxury of his train: many of them were heavily impoverished by this enforced hospitality. At Montpellier he received the homage of the Kings of Majorca and Aragon: he confirmed the King of Arragon in the possession of the islands of Corsica and Sardinia, and received his oath of fealty. He Oct. 7. had invited to his coronation his two sovereigns, the Kings of France and England. The King of England alleged important affairs in Scotland as an excuse for not doing honour to his former vassal. The Kings of France and Majorca were present. On the Cardinal Matteo Orsini, Italian, Roman, to the heart, devolved the office of crowning the Gascon Pope, whose Nov. 14.
Coronation
at Lyons. aversion to Italy he well knew. The Pope rode in solemn state from the Church of St. Just in the royal castle of Lyons to the palace prepared for him. The King of France at first held his bridle, and then yielded the post of humble honour to his brothers, Charles of Valois, and Louis of Evreux, and to the Duke of Bretagne. The pomp was interrupted by a dire and ominous calamity. An old wall fell as they passed. The Pope was thrown from his horse, but escaped unhurt: his gorgeous crown rolled in the mire. The Duke of Bretagne, with eleven or

⁸ VI. Vit. Clement. apud Baluz.

twelve others, was killed ; Charles of Valois seriously hurt.

Clement V. hastened to fulfil the first of his engagements to the King of France, perhaps designing by this ready zeal to avert, elude, or delay the accomplishment of those which were more difficult or more humiliating. The King of France had plenary absolution : he was received as again the favoured son and protector of the Church. To the King were granted the tenths on all the revenues of the Church of France for five years. The Colonnas were restored to their dignity ; they resumed the state, dress, and symbols of the Cardinalate, and took their place in the Sacred College. A promotion of ten Cardinals showed what interest was hereafter to prevail in the Conclave. Among the ten were the Bishops of Toulouse and Beziers, the Archbishop (Elect) of Bordeaux and the nephew of the Pope, the King's Confessor Nicolas de Francavilla, the King's Chancellor Stephen, Archdeacon of Bruges. A French Pope was to be surrounded by a French Court.

Measure followed measure to propitiate the Pope's master. Of the two famous Bulls, that denominated "Clericis Laicos" was altogether abrogated, as having been the cause of grievous scandals, dangers, and inconveniences. The old decrees of the Lateran and other Councils concerning the taxation of the clergy were declared to be the law of the Church. As to the other, the "Unam Sanctam," the dearest beloved son Philip of France, for his loyal attachment to the Church of Rome, had deserved that the Pope should declare this statute to contain nothing to his prejudice ; that he, his realm, and his people, were exactly in the same state, as regarded the See of Rome, as before the promulgation of that Bull.

But there were two articles of the compact, besides the secret one, yet unaccomplished, the complete absolution of all the King's agents in the quarrel with the Pope, and the condemnation of the memory of Boniface. The Pope writhed and struggled in vain in the folds of his deathly embarrassment. The King of France could not in honour, he was not disposed by temper to abandon the faithful executioners of his mandates: he might want them for other remorseless services. He could not retreat or let fall the accusations against the deceased Pope. Philip was compelled, like other persecutors, to go on in his persecution. This immitigable, seemingly vindictive, hostility to the fame of Boniface was his only justification. If those high crimes and misdemeanours of which the Pope had been arraigned, those heresies, immoralities, cruelties, enormities, were admitted to be groundless, or dropped as not thought worthy of proof, the seizure of Anagni became a barbarous, cowardly, and unnecessary outrage on a defenceless old man, an impious sacrilege: William of Nogaret and his accomplices were base and cruel assassins.

Already, before the death of Benedict, William of Nogaret had issued one strong protest against his condemnation. During the vacancy he ^{William of Nogaret.} allowed no repose to the memory of Boniface, and justified himself against the terrible anathema of Benedict. He appeared before the official of his diocesan, the Bishop of Paris, and claimed absolution from a censure issued by the Pope under false information. He promulgated two memorials: in the first he adduced sixty heads of accusation against Boniface; in the second he protested at great length against the rash proceedings of Pope Benedict. The Bull of Benedict had cited him to appear at Rome on the Festival of

St. Peter and St. Paul. He excused his contumacy in not appearing: he was in France, the citation had not been served upon him; and also by reason of the death of the Pope, as well as on account of his powerful enemies in Italy. Nogaret entered into an elaborate account of his own intercourse with Pope Boniface. Five years before, he had been the King's ambassador to announce the treaty of Philip with Albert, King of the Romans. The Pope demanded Tuscany as the price of his consent to that alliance. It was then that William of Nogaret heard at Rome the vices and misdeeds of the Pope, of which he was afterwards arraigned, and had humbly implored the Pope to desist from his simonies and extortions. The Pope had demanded whether he spoke in his own name or in that of the King. Nogaret had replied, in his own, out of his great zeal for the Church. The Pope had roared with passion, like a madman, and had heaped on him menaces, insults, and blasphemies.^b

Nogaret treats the refusal of Boniface to appear before the Council when first summoned at Anagni as an act of contumacy; he therefore (Nogaret) was justified in using force towards a contumacious criminal. He asserts that he saved the life of Boniface when others would have killed him; that he tried to protect the treasure, of which he had not touched a penny; he had kept the Pope with a decent attendance, and supplied him with food and drink. Had he slain the wicked usurper he had been justified, as Phineas who pleased the Lord, as Abraham who slew the Kings, Moses the Egyptian, the Maccabees the enemies of God. Pope Benedict had complained of the loss of his treasure, he ought rather to have complained that so vast a treasure

^b Preuves, p. 252.

had been wrung by cruel exactions from the impoverished churches. He asserts that for all his acts he had received absolution from Boniface himself. For all these reasons he appealed to a General Council in the vacancy of the Pontificate, and demanded absolution from the unjust censures of the misinformed Pope Benedict.

William of Nogaret was necessary, as other men of his stamp, for meditated acts of the King, not less cruel or less daring than the surprisal at Anagni and the abasement of the Supreme Pontiff. The King ^{King's dis-} of France, ever rapacious, yet ever necessitous, ^{resses.} who must maintain his schemes, his ambition, his wars in Flanders, at lavish cost, but with hardly any certain income but that of the royal domains, had again taken to that coarse expedient of barbarous finance, the debasement of the coin. There were now two standards: in the higher the King and the Nobles exacted the payments of their subjects and vassals; the lower the subjects and vassals were obliged to receive as current money. Everywhere was secret or clamorous discontent, aggravated by famine;¹ discontent in Paris and Orleans rose to insurrection, which endangered the King's government, even his person, and was only put down by extreme measures of cruelty. The King was compelled to make concessions, to consent himself to be paid in the lower coin. But some time had elapsed since the usual financial resource in times of difficulty had been put in force. The Jews had had ^{Jews plun-} leisure to become again alluringly rich. ^{dered.} William of Nogaret proceeded with his usual rapid resolution. In one day all the Jews were seized, their property confiscated to the Crown, the race expelled

¹ During the winter 1304-b.

the realm. The clergy, in their zeal for the faith, and the hope that their own burthens might be lightened, approved this pious robbery, and rejoiced that France was delivered from the presence of this usurious and miscreant race. William of Nogaret had atoned for some at least of his sins.^k But even this was not his last service.

Pope Clement, in the mean time, hastened to return to Bordeaux. He passed by a different road, through Macon, Clugny, Nevers, Bourges, Limoges, again severely taxing by the honour of his entertainment all the great monasteries and chapters on his way. The Archbishop of Bourges was so reduced as to accept the pittance of a Canon. At Bordeaux the Pope was in the dominions of England, and to Edward of England he showed himself even a more obsequious vassal than to the King of France. He could perhaps secure Edward's protection if too hardly pressed

The Pope at
Bordeaux.

by his inexorable master, the King of France.

England.

He gave to Edward plenary absolution from all his oaths to maintain the Charters (the Great Charter and the Charter of Forests) extorted from him, as was asserted, by his disloyal subjects.^m Afterwards, casting aside all the haughty pretensions of Pope Boniface, he excommunicated Robert Bruce, now engaged in his gallant strife for the crown of Scotland.ⁿ

But the Pope could not decline the commanding invitation of King Philip to an interview within the realm of France, at Poitiers. To that city he went, but soon repented of having placed himself so completely within the King's power. He attempted to

^k Ordonnances des Rois, i. 443, 447. Vita Clementis. Continuator. Nangis, p. 594. Raynald, sub ann. 1306, c. 29. ^m Rymer. ⁿ Ibid.

make an honourable retreat; he was retained with courteous force, and overwhelmed with specious honour and reverence.

A Congress of Princes might seem assembled to show their flattering respect to the Pontiff:—Philip, with his three sons, his brothers Charles of Valois and Louis Count of Evreux, Robert Count of Flanders, Charles King of Naples, the ambassadors of Edward King of England. Clement, by the prodigality of his concessions, endeavoured to avert the fatal question, the condemnation of Boniface. He was seized with a sudden ardour to place Charles of Valois on the throne of Constantinople, in right of his wife, Isabella of Courtenay. He declared himself the head of a new Crusade, addressed Bulls to all Christendom, in order to expel the feeble Andronicus from the throne, which must fall under the power of the Turks and Saracens, unless filled by a powerful Christian Emperor. He pronounced his anathema against Andronicus. He awarded the kingdom of Hungary to Charobert, grandson of the King of Naples. He took the first steps for the canonisation of Louis, the second son of Charles, who had died Archbishop of Toulouse in the odour of sanctity. He remitted the vast debt owed by the King of Naples to the Papal See, which amounted to 360,000 ounces of gold; a third was absolutely annulled, the rest assigned to the Crusade of Charles of Valois.^o

But the inflexible Philip was neither to be diverted nor dissuaded from exacting the full terms of his bond. He offered to prove forty-three articles of heresy against Boniface; he demanded that the body of the Pope should be disinterred and burned, the ignominious fate

^o Acta apud Baluzium, xxv.

of heretics, which he had undeservedly escaped during life. Even the French Cardinals saw and deprecated the fatal consequences of such a proceeding to the Church. All the acts of Boniface, his bulls, decrees, promotions, became questionable. The College of Cardinals was dissolved, at least the nomination of almost all became precarious. The title of Clement himself was doubtful. The effects of breaking the chain of traditional authority were incalculable, interminable. The Supplement to the Canon Law, the Sixth Book of Decretals, at once the most unanswerable proof of the orthodoxy of Boniface and the most full assertion of the rights of the Church, fell to the ground. The foundations of the Papal power were shaken to the base. By the wise advice of the Cardinal da Prato, Clement determined to dissemble and so gain time. Philip himself had demanded a General Council of all Christendom. A General Council alone of all Christendom could give dignity and authority to a decree so weighty and unprecedented as the condemnation of a Pope. They only could investigate such judgement. In such an assembly the Prelates of the Christian world, French, English, Germans, Italians, Spaniards, might meet; and the Church, in her full liberty, and with irrefragable solemnity, decide the awful cause. He named the city of Vienne in Dauphiny as the seat of this Great Council. In the mean time he strove to conciliate the counsellors who ruled the mind of Philip.

Council of
Vienna de-
termined on. William of Nogaret and his accomplices received full absolution for all their acts in the seizure of Boniface and the plunder of the Papal treasures, on condition of certain penances to be assigned by some of the Cardinals. William of Nogaret was to take arms in the East against the Saracens, and

Absolution
of the No-
garet.

not to return without permission of the Holy See; but he was allowed five years' delay before he was called on to fulfil this penitential Crusade.^p

The Pope could breathe more freely: he had gained time, and time was inestimable. Who could know what it might bring forth? Even the stubborn hatred of Philip might be, if not mitigated, distracted to some other object. That object seemed to arise at once, great, of absorbing public interest, ministering excitement to all Philip's dominant passions, a religious object of the most surprising, unprecedented, almost appalling nature, and of the most dubious justice and policy, the abolition of the great Order of the Knights Templars. The secret of the last stipulation in the covenant between the King and the Pope remained with themselves; what it was, and whether it was really demanded, was not permitted to transpire. Was it this destruction of the Templars? No one knew: yet all had their conjecture. Or was it some yet remoter scheme, the elevation of his brother or himself to the Imperial throne? It was still a dark, profound, and so more stimulating mystery.

The famous Order of the Temple of Jerusalem had sprung, like all the other great religious institutions of the middle ages, from the humblest A.D. 1118.
The Order of
the Knights
Templars. origin. Their ancestors were a small band of nine French Knights,^q engaged on a chivalrous adventure, sworn to an especial service, the protection of the Christian pilgrims to the Holy Sepulchre through the

^p Raynaldus, sub ann. 1307, c. xi.

^q A.D. 1118. Hugo de Payens, Godfrey de St. Omar, Raoul, Godfrey Bisol, Pagans de Montdidier, Archem-

bold de St. Aman, Andrew, Gundomar, Hugh Count of Provence.—Wilcke, *Geschichte des Tempelherren Ordens*, p. 9

dangerous passes between Jerusalem and the Jordan, that they might bathe, unmolested by the marauding Moslemin, in the holy waters. The Templars had become, in almost every kingdom of the West, a powerful, wealthy, and formidable republic, governed by their own laws, animated by the closest corporate spirit, under the severest internal discipline and an all-pervading organisation; independent alike of the civil power and of the spiritual hierarchy. It was a half-military, half-monastic community. The three great monastic vows, implicit obedience to their superiors, chastity, the abandonment of all personal property, were the fundamental statutes of the Order: while, instead of the peaceful and secluded monastery, the contemplative, devotional, or studious life, their convents were strong castles, their life that of the camp or the battle-field, their occupation chivalrous exercises or adventures, war in preparation, or war in all its fierceness and activity. The nine brethren in arms were now fifteen thousand of the bravest, best-trained, most experienced soldiers in the world; armed, horsed, accoutered in the most perfect and splendid fashion of the times; isolated from all ties or interests with the rest of mankind; ready at the summons of the Grand Master to embark on any service; the one aim the power, aggrandisement, enrichment of the Order.

St. Bernard, in his devout enthusiasm, had beheld in the rise of the Templars a permanent and invincible Crusade. The Order (with its rival brotherhood, the Knights of the Hospital or of St. John) was in his view a perpetual sacred militia, which would conquer and maintain the sepulchre of the Lord, become the body-guard of the Christian Kings of Jerusalem, the standing army on the outposts of Christendom. His eloquent

address to the soldiers of the Temple^r was at once the law and the vivid expression of the dominant sentiments of his time; here, as in all things, his age spake in St. Bernard. From that time the devout admiration of Western Christendom in heaping the most splendid endowments of lands, castles, riches of all kinds, on the Knights of the Temple and of the Hospital, supposed that it was contributing in the most efficient manner to the Holy Wars. Successive Popes, the most renowned and wise, especially Innocent III., notwithstanding occasional signs of mistrust and jealousy of their augmenting power, had vied with each other in enlarging the privileges and raising the fame of the Knights of the Temple. Eugenius III., under the influence of St. Bernard, first issued a Bull in their favour; but their great Charter, which invested them in their most valuable rights and privileges,^s was issued ^{A.D. 1172.} by Alexander III. They had already ceased to be a lay community, and therefore under spiritual subjection to the clergy. The clergy had been admitted in considerable numbers into the Order, and so their own body administered within themselves all the rites and sacraments of religion. Innocent III. released the clergy in the Order of the Templars from their oath of fidelity and obedience to their Bishop; henceforth they owed allegiance to the Pope alone.^t Honorius III. prohibited all Bishops from excommunicating any Knight Templar,

^r Refer back to vol. iv. 894. Sermo ad Milites Templi, Opera, p. 830.

^s The Bull, *Omne datum optimum*. Compare Wilke, p. 77. It is translated by Mr. Addison, the Knights Templars, p. 70.

Innocent III., Epist. i. 508, ii. 35, 84, 257, 259. To the Bishops, "Quatenus a capellanis ecclesiarum, quæ pleno jure jam dictis fratribus sunt concessæ, nec fidelitatem, nec obedientiam exigatis, quia Romani tantum Pontifici sunt subjecti."

or laying an interdict on their churches or houses. Gregory IX., Innocent IV., Alexander III., Clement IV. maintained their absolute exemption from episcopal authority. The Grand Master and the brotherhood of the Temple were subordinate only to the supreme head of Christendom. Gregory X. crowned their privileges with an exemption from all contributions to the Holy War, and from the tenths paid by the rest of Christendom for this sacred purpose. The pretence was that their whole lands and wealth were held on that tenure."

Nearly two hundred years* had elapsed since the foundation of the Order, two hundred years of slow, imperceptible, but inevitable change. The Knights Templars fought in the Holy Land with consummate valour, discipline, activity, and zeal; but they fought for themselves, not for the common cause of Christianity. They were an independent army, owing no subordination to the King or Bishop of Jerusalem, or to any of the Sovereigns who placed themselves at the head of a Crusade. They supported or thwarted, according to their own views, the plans of campaigns, joined vigorously in the enterprise, or stood aloof in sullen disapprobation: they made or broke treaties. Thus formidable to the enemies of the faith, they were not less so to its champions. There was a constant rivalry with the Knights of St. John, not of generous emulation, but of power and even of sordid gain. During the expe-

* "Cum vos ad hoc principaliter laboratis, ut vos pariter et omnia quæ habetis pro ipsius terræ sanctæ defensione, ac Christianæ fidei exponatis, vos eximere a præstatione hujusmodi (decimæ pro terrâ sanctâ) de benignitate Apostolicâ curaremus."—Compa

Wilcke, ii. p. 195.

* 1118—1207. As early as the Crusade of the Emperor Conrad (1147), Conrad would have taken Damascus, "nisi avaritia, dolus et invidia Templariorum obstitisset."—*Annal. Herbip. Pertz*, xvi. p. 7.

dition of Frederick II. the Master of the Templars and the whole Order had espoused the cause of the Pope. To their stubborn opposition was attributed, no doubt with much justice, the failure or rather the imperfect success of that Crusade.

The character of the war in the East had also changed, unnoticed, unobserved. There was no longer the implacable mutual aversion, or rather abhorrence, with which the Christian met the Saracen, the Saracen the Christian; from which the Christian thought that by slaying the Saracen he was avenging the cause of his Redeemer, and washing off his own sins; the Saracen that in massacring the Christian, or trampling on the Christian dog, he was acting according to the first principles of his faith, and winning Paradise. This traditionary, almost inborn, antipathy had worn away by long intermingling, and given place to the courtesies and mutual respect of a more chivalrous warfare. The brave and generous Knight could not but admire bravery and generosity in his antagonist. The accidents of war led to more intimate acquaintance, acquaintance to hospitable even to social intercourse, social intercourse to a fairer estimation of the better qualities on both sides. The prisoner was not always reduced to a cruel and debasing servitude, or shut up in a squalid dungeon. He became the guest, the companion, of his high-minded captor. A character like that of Saladin, which his fiercest enemies could not behold without awe and admiring wonder, must have softened the detestation with which it was once the duty of the Christian to look on the Unbeliever. The lofty toleration of Frederick II. might offend the more zealous by its approximation to indifference, but was not altogether uncongenial to the dominant feeling. How far had that indifference, which was so hardly

reproached against Frederick, crept into the minds and hearts of Frederick's most deadly enemies? How far had Mohammedanism lost its odious and repulsive character to the Templars, and begun to appear not as a monstrous and wicked idolatry to be refuted only with the good sword, but as a sublime and hardly irrational Theism? How far had Oriental superstitions, belief in magic, in the power of amulets and talismans, divination, mystic signs and characters, dealings with genii or evil spirits, seized on the excited imaginations of those adventurous but rude warriors of the West, and mingled with that secret ceremonial which was designed to impress upon the initiated the inflexible discipline of the Order? How far were the Templars orientalised by their domiciliation in the East? Had their morals escaped the taint of Oriental licence? Vows of chastity were very different to men of hot blood, inflamed by the sun of the East, in the freedom of the camp or the marauding expedition, provoked by the sack and plunder of towns, the irruption into the luxurious hareems of their foes; and to monks in close-watched seclusion, occupied every hour of the day and night with religious services, emaciated by the fast and scourge, and become, as it were, the shadows of men. If even Western devotees were so apt, as was ever the case, to degenerate into debauchery, the individual Templar at least would hardly maintain his austere and impeccable virtue. Those unnatural vices, which it offends Christian purity even to allude to, but which are looked upon if not with indulgence, at least without the same disgust in the East, were chiefly charged upon the Templars. Yet after all, it was the pride rather than the sensuality of the Order which was their characteristic and proverbial crime. Richard I., who must

have known them well in the East, bequeathed not his avarice, or his lust, but his pride, to the Knights of the Temple.

But the Templars were not a great colony of warriors transplanted and settled in the East as their permanent abode, having broken off all connexion with their native West. They were powerful feudal lords, lords of castles and domains and estates, a self-governed community in all the kingdoms of Europe. Hence their total expulsion, with the rest of the Christian establishments, from Palestine, left them not, as might have been expected, without home, without possessions, discharged, as it were, from their mission by its melancholy and ignominious failure. The loss of the Temple, the irretrievable loss, might seem to imply the dissolution of the defenders of the Temple: it might be thought to disband and disclaim them as useless and worn-out veterans. The bitter disappointment of the Christian world at that loss would attribute the shame, the guilt, to those whose especial duty it was, the very charter of their foundation, to protect it. That guilt was unanswerably shown by God's visible wrath. His abandonment of the tomb of his Blessed Son was a proof which could not be gainsaid, that the Christians, those especially designated for the glorious service, were unworthy of that honour. Any charge of wickedness so denounced, it might seem, by God himself, would find ready hearing.

The Knights of the Hospital, more fortunate or more sagacious, had found an occupation for their arms, of which perhaps themselves did not appreciate the full importance, the conquest of Rhodes. Their establishment in that island became the bulwark, long the unconquerable outpost of Christen-

Loss of
Palestine.

Conquest of
Rhodes by
Knights of
St. John.

dom in the East. The Templars, if they did not altogether stand aloof from that enterprise, disdained to act a secondary part, and to aid in subduing for their rivals that in which those rivals would claim exclusive dominion.*

Clement V., soon after his accession, had summoned the Grand Masters of the two Orders to Europe, under the pretext of consulting them on the affairs of the East, on succours to be afforded to the King of Armenia, and on plans which had been already formed for the union of the two Orders. It does not appear whether, either with a secret understanding with the King of France, or of his own accord, he as yet contemplated hostile measures against the Order. He declares himself, that while at Lyons he had heard reports unfavourable both to the faith and to the conduct of the Templars: but he had rejected with disdain all impeachment against an Order which had warred so valiantly and shed so much noble blood in defence of the Sepulchre of the Lord. His invitation was couched in the smoothest terms of religious adulation.†

Du Molay,‡ Grand Master of the Order, manifestly altogether unsuspecting, obeyed the Papal invitation. The Grand Master of the Hospitalers alleged his engagement in the siege of Rhodes. But if Du Molay had designed to precipitate the fall of his Order, he could not have followed a more fatal course of policy. His return to Europe was not that of the head of an institution whose occupation and special

* Raynald. sub ann. 1308.

† "De quorum circumspectâ probitate, et probatâ circumspectione ac vulgatâ fidelitate fiduciam teneamus." So wrote Clement V. The

letter is in Raynaldus, date June 8, 1306.

‡ See in Raynouard, *Monuments Historiques*, p. 15 *et seqq.*, the life and services of Du Molay.

function was in the East, and who held all they possessed on the tenure of war against the Moslemin. He might rather seem an independent Prince, intending to take up his permanent abode and live in dignity and wealth on their ample domains, or rather territories, in Europe. He might seem almost wantonly to alarm the jealous apprehensions, and stimulate the insatiable rapacity of Philip the Fair. He assembled around him in Cyprus a retinue of sixty, the most distinguished Knights of the Order, collected a great mass of treasure, and left the Marshal of the Order as Regent in that island. In this state, having landed in the south, and made his slow progress through France, he entered the capital, and proceeded to the mansion of the Order, in ^{Entry into Paris.} Paris as well as in London perhaps the most spacious, the strongest, and even most magnificent edifice in the city. The treasure which Du Molay brought was reported to amount to the enormous sum of one hundred and fifty thousand golden florins and a vast quantity of silver. The populace wondered at the long train of sumpter horses,^b as they moved through the narrow streets to the Temple citadel, which confronted the Louvre in its height and strength. Du Molay was received with ostentatious courtesy by the King. Everything flattered his pride and security; there was no sign, no omen of the danger which lowered around him.

Yet Du Molay, if of less generous and unsuspecting nature, should have known the character of Philip, and

^b Raynouard says, p. 17, " Outre l'immense trésor que l'Ordre conservait dans le palais du Temple à Paris, le chef apporta de l'Orient cent cinquante mille florins d'or, et une grande quantité de gros tournois d'argent, qui formaient la charge de douze chevaux sommes considérables pour le temps."

that every motive which actuated that unscrupulous King was concentrated in its utmost intensity against his Order. Philip's manifest policy was the submission of the whole realm to his despotic power; the elevation of the kingly authority above all feudal check, or ecclesiastical control. Would he endure an armed brotherhood, a brotherhood so completely organised, in itself more formidable than any army he could bring into the field, to occupy a fortress in his capital and other strongholds throughout the kingdom? It was no less his policy to establish an uniform taxation, a heavy and grinding taxation, on all classes, on the Church as on the laity. The Templars had stubbornly refused to pay the tenths which he had levied everywhere else almost without resistance.^a There were strong suspicions that during the strife with the King, Boniface had reckoned on the secret if not active support of the Templars, who, as highly favoured by the Pope, had almost always been high Papalists.^a If they had not held a congregation in defence of Boniface, such congregation might have been held.^b For this reason no doubt, if not for a darker one—some concern in the burning of his father—William of Nogaret hated the Templars with all the hatred which he had not exhausted on Pope Boniface.^c

^a They were exempt by the Papal privilege. These tenths were still in theory permitted by the Pope, as though for holy uses—the recovery of Palestine.

^a "In diebus suis admirabilis novitas et persecutio facta est super Ordinem Templariorum, quod processit ex invidia et cupiditate Philippi Francorum regis, qui odio Templariorum ha-

bebat, eo quod ausi fuerant stare contra ipsum ex sententiâ excommunicationis, datâ per dictum Bonifacium contra dictum Regem."—*Chronica. Astens. Murator. xi. p. 193.*

^b One writer says, "Quia contra Regem congregationem fecerunt."

^c "Guilielmus de Nogaret, Regis Franciæ auctor fuit pro posse ruinæ ordinis Templariorum, eo quod patrem

Philip knew well not only the strength but the wealth of the Order. He knew their strength, for during the insurrections at Paris on account of the debasement of the coin, he had fled from his own insecure Louvre, and taken refuge in the Temple. From that impregnable fortress he had defied his rebellious subjects, and afterwards having gathered some troops, perhaps with the aid of the Templars themselves, suppressed the mutiny (which the Templars nevertheless were accused of having instigated), and had hanged the insurgents ^a on the trees around the city. Philip knew too their wealth.^b From their treasures alone he had been able to borrow the dowry of his daughter Isabella, on her marriage with Prince Edward of England. Debtors love not their creditors. Du Molay is said to have made importunate and unwelcome demands for repayment.¹ Every race or community possessed of dangerous riches had in turn suffered the extortionate persecutions of Philip. Would his avarice, which had drained the Jews, the Lombards, and laid his sacrilegious hands on the Church, so tempted, respect the Templars, even if he had no excuse of religious zeal or regard for morals to justify his confiscation of their riches?

ejus tanquam hæreticum comburi fecerunt." This can hardly be literally true. But see further the staking speech of a Templar going to the stake, and (what cannot be true) the death of Noguet.—Chron. Astens. ut supra.

^a Continuator Nangis apud Bouquet, p. 594.

^b Of their wealth:

"Li frère, il mestre au Temple
Qu'estoient rompi et ampie
D'or, d'argent et de richesse,
Et qui mouvoient tel noblesse . . .
Tozjors achetoient sans vendre."

Chronique quoted by Raynouard, p. 7.

According to Paris, "*Habent Templari in Christianitate novem nullia maneriorum.*"—p. 417.

¹ "*Quia is magistrum ordinis ex-
sum habuit, propter importunam pec-
uniæ exactionem, quam in nuptiis
filæ suæ Isabellæ ei mutuum de-
derat. Inhabat præterea prædiis mi-
litum et possessionibus.*"—Thom. de
la Moor, Vit. Edward II., quoted
in note to Baluzius. Pap. Avionen.,
p. 589.

Du Molay, in his lofty security, proceeded to the great meeting at Poitiers, to pay his allegiance with the Princes and Sovereigns, and to give counsel to the Pope on the affairs of the East and those of the Military Orders. Du Molay's advice as to the future Crusade, however wise and well-grounded, might seem a death-blow to all hopes of success. There could be no reliance on the King of Armenia; to reconquer the Holy Land would demand the league and co-operation of all the Kings of Christendom. Their united forces, conveyed by the united fleets of Genoa, Venice, and other maritime cities, should land at Cyprus; and from Cyprus carry on a regular and aggressive war. The proposal for the fusion of the Knights of the Temple and of St. John, a scheme proposed by Gregory X. and by St. Louis, he coldly rejected as impracticable. "That which is new is not always the best. The Orders, in their separate corporations, had done great things; it was doubtful how, if united, they would act together. Both were spiritual as well as secular institutions: neither could, with safe conscience, give up the statutes to which they had sworn, to adopt those of the other. There would rise inextinguishable discord concerning their estates and possessions. The Templars were lavish of their wealth, the Hospitallers only intent on amassing wealth: on this head there must be endless strife. The Templars were in better fame, more richly endowed by the laity. The Templars would lose their popularity, or excite the envy of the Hospitallers. There would be eternal contests between the heads of the Orders, as to the conferring dignities and offices of trust. The united Order might be more strong and formidable, and yet many ancient establishments fall to the ground; and so the collective wealth

and power might be diminished rather than augmented." ^k

Yet even now that Du Molay was holding this almost supercilious language, the mine was under his feet, ready to burst and explode. Du Molay could not be absolutely ignorant of the sinister rumours which had long been spread abroad concerning the faith, the morals, the secret mysteries of his Order; he could not be ignorant that they had been repeatedly urged upon the Pope by the King himself, by his counsellors, by the Prior of the new convent in Poitiers.^m But he maintained, both he and the other Preceptors of the Order, the same haughty demeanour. They demanded again and again, and in the most urgent terms, rigid investigation, so that, if blameless, as they asserted, they might receive public absolution; if guilty, might suffer condemnation.ⁿ Content with this defiance of their enemies, Du Molay and the other Preceptors returned quietly to Paris.^o

There was a certain Squino di Florian, Prior of Montfalcon, in the county of Toulouse, who had been condemned, as a heretic and a man of evil ^{Squino di Florian.} life, to perpetual imprisonment in the dungeons of one of the royal castles. There he met one Roffo, a Flo-

* See the Document in Baluzius, vol. ii, p. 174.

^m Letter of Clement to Philip, Baluzius, ii. p. 74. This letter is misdated by Baluzius. Wilcke has retained the error. The letter mentions the death of Edward I., which took place July 7, 1307. It was written when Clement was at or near Poitiers. The King had left the city.

ⁿ "Quia verò magister militum Templi ac multi præceptores, tam de regno tuo quam aliis ejusdem ordinis

cum eodem, audito, ut dixerunt, quid tam erga nos te quam erga aliquos alios dominos temporales super prædicto facto multipliciter eorum opinio gravabatur, a nobis, nedum semel, sed pluries cum magnâ instantiâ petierunt quod nos super illis eis falso impositis, ut dicebant, vellemus inquirere veritatem, ac eos, si reperiuntur, ut asserbant inculpabiles, absolvere, vel ipsos si reperiuntur culpabiles, quod nullatenus credebant, condemnare vellemus.' —Ex Epist. ut supra. ^o Raynouard, p. 18.

rentine, an apostate Templar, perhaps some others: he contrived to communicate to the King's officers that he could reveal foul and monstrous secrets of the Order. He was admitted to the royal presence; and on his attestation the vague and terrible charges, which had been floating about as rumours, grew into distinct and awful articles of accusation.^p

Christendom heard with amazement and horror that this noble, proud, and austere Order, which Charges against the Order. had waged irreconcilable war with the Saracens, poured its best blood, like water, for two hundred years on the soil of Palestine, sworn to the severest chastity as to the most rigorous discipline, was charged and publicly charged by the King of France with the most deliberate infidelity, with the most revolting lust, with the most subtle treason to Christendom. The sum of these charges, as appeared from the examinations, was,—that at the secret initiation into the Order, each novice was compelled to deny Christ, and to spit upon the Cross; that obscene kisses were given and received by the candidate; that an idol, the head either of a cat, with two human faces, or that of one of the eleven thousand virgins, or of some other monstrous form, was the object of their secret worship; that they wore a cord which had acquired a magical or talismanic power by contact with this idol; that full licence was granted

^p Baluzi Vit. VI. Villani, viii. 92. This was the current history of the time. The historian expresses, too, the prevailing opinion out of France. "Ma più si dice, che fu per trarre di loro molta moneta, e per isdegno preso col maestro del tempio, e colla magione. Il Papa per levarsi da dosso il Re di Francia per la richiesta del

condannare Papa Bonifazio . . . per piacere al Re li assenti di cio fare." Dupuy observes (*De la Condamnation des Templiers*, p. 8), that *all* the historians of the times agree in this. He refers to them. Compare also Note, p. 198, in Haveman, *Geschichte des Ausgangs des Tempelherren Ordens*. Stuttgart, 1843.

for the indulgence of unnatural lusts; that parts of the canon of the mass were omitted in their churches; that the Grand Master and other great officers, even when not in holy orders, claimed the power of granting absolution; that they were in secret league with the Moham-medans, and had constantly betrayed the Christian cause, especially that of St. Louis at Mansura. These were the formal legal charges, of which the accusers offered to furnish proof, or to wring confession by torture from the criminals themselves. Popular credulity, terror, hatred, envy, either by the usual inventiveness of common rumour, or by the industrious malice of the King and his counsellors, darkened even these crimes into more appalling and loathsome acts. If a Templar refused to continue to his death in his wickedness, he was burned and his ashes given to be drank by the younger Templars. A child begotten on a virgin was cooked and roasted, and the idol anointed with its fat.¹

Philip did not await the tardy decision of the Pope. A slower process might have banded together this formidable body, thus driven to despair, ^{Arrest of the Templars} in resistance if not in rebellion. On the 14th of September, the Feast of the Elevation of the Cross, sealed instructions were issued to all the seneschals and other high officers of the crown throughout the realm, to summon each a powerful armed force, on the night of the 12th of October: then and not before, under pain of death, to open those close instructions.* The instruc-

¹ See the eleven articles in the *Chronique de Saint Denys*, Bouquet, p. 886. Observe among the more heinous charges is one that they refused to pay taxes to the king. "Que eux reconurant du Tresor du Roi a aucuns

avoir donné, qui au Roi avoient fait contrariété, laquelle chose estoit moult damageable au Royaume"—Art. vi.

* In Dupuy, i. p. 311. There is copy of the orders addressed to the Vidame and the Bailiff of Amiens.

tions ran, that according to secret counsels taken with the Holy Father the Pope, with his cognisance if not his sanction, the King gave command to arrest on one and the same day all the Knights Templars within the kingdom; to commit them to safe custody, and to set the royal seal on all their goods, to make a careful inventory thereof, and to retain them in the name of the King. Philip's officers were trained to execute these rapid and simultaneous movements for the apprehension and spoliation of some devoted class of his subjects. That which had succeeded so well with the defenceless Lombards and Jews, was executed with equal promptitude and precision against the warlike Templars. In one day (Friday, October 13th), at the dawn of one day, with no single act of resistance, with no single attempt at flight, as if not the slightest intimation of measures which had been a month in preparation had reached their ears; or as if, presuming on their innocence, numbers, or popularity, they had not deigned to take alarm: the whole Order, every one of these highborn and valiant warriors, found the houses of the Order surrounded by the King's soldiers, and was dragged forth to prison. The inventory of the whole property was made, and was in the King's power. In Paris, William of Nogaret and Reginald de Roje,

is dated Pontisera ("Pontoise"). But the fullest "instructions" are those from the archives of Nismes, published by Menard, "Histoire de Nismes," Preuves, p. 195. They begin with these inflaming words: "Res amara, res flebilis, res quidem cogitata horribilis, auditu terribilis, detestabilis crimine, execrabilis scelere, abominabilis opere, detestanda flagi-

tio, res penitus ymo ab omni humanitate seposita, dudum fide dignorum relatione multorum . . ." Those employed "salzare" must be well armed, "in manu forti ne possit per illos fratres et eorum familias resisti." Inquisition was to be made "particulariter et diversim omnimodo quo poterunt, etiam ubi faciendum viderint, per tormenta."—p. 197.

fit executioners of such a mandate, were intrusted with the arrest of the Grand Master and the Knights in Paris. Jacques du Molay but the day before had held the pall at the funeral of the King's sister.* They were confined in separate dungeons. The royal officers took possession of the strong and stately mansion which had given refuge to the King. Everywhere throughout France there was the same suddenness, the same despatch, the same success. Every Templar in the realm was a prisoner.†

The secrecy, the celerity, the punctuality with which those orders were executed throughout the realm, could not but excite, even had they ^{Further proceedings.} been employed on an affair of less moment, amazement and admiration bordering on terror. The Templars were wealthy, powerful, had connexions at once among the highest and the humblest families. They had been haughty, insolent, but many at least lavish in almsgiving. They partook of the sanctity which invested all religious bodies; they were or had been the defenders of the Sepulchre of Christ; they had fought, knelt, worshipped in the Holy Land. It was prudent, if not necessary, to crush at once all popular sympathy; to leave no doubt of the King's justice, or suspicion of his motives in seizing such rich and tempting endowments. The very day after the apprehension of the Knights, the Canons of Notre Dame and the Masters of the University of Paris were assembled in the Chapter-house of that church. The Chancellor William of

* "Poele," Baluz., Vit. I. Michelet, Hist. des Français, vol. iv. ch. iii.

† Neither the names nor the numbers of the prisoners in other seneschalties are known. Sixty were

arrested at Beaumont: forty-five of these incarcerated at Aignes Mortes, fifteen at Nismes. Thirty-three were committed to the royal castle of Alais.

Nogaret, the Provost of Paris, and others of the King's ministers, with William Imbert, the King's Confessor and Grand Inquisitor of the realm, to whose jurisdiction the whole affair was committed, made their appearance,

and arraigned the Order on five enormous charges.^a I. The denial of Christ and the insult to the Cross; II. The adoration of an idolatrous head; III. The kisses at their reception; IV. The omission of the words of consecration in the mass; V. Unnatural crimes. On the same day (Saturday) the theological faculty of Paris was summoned to give judgment whether the King could proceed against a religious Order on his own authority. They took time for their deliberation: their formal sentence was not promulgated till some months after; its substance was probably declared or anticipated. A temporal judge cannot pass sentence in case of heresy, unless summoned thereto by the Church, and where the heretics have been made over to the secular arm. But in case of necessity he may apprehend and imprison a heretic, with the intent to deliver him over to the Church.*

The next day (Sunday) the whole clergy and the people from all the parishes of the city were gathered together in the gardens of the royal palace. Sermons were delivered by the most popular preachers, the Friars; addresses were made to the multitude by the King's ministers, denouncing, blackening, aggravating the crimes of the Templars. No means were spared to allay any possible movement of interest

^a "Casus enormissimos." Baluzii Vit. I. The first of these Lives (of Clement V.) was written by John, Canon of St. Victor in Paris, and therefore is the best authority for the events in Paris.

* Crevier, ii. p. 207. Wilcke, i. p. 284.

in their favour. Blow followed blow without pause or delay; every rebellious impulse of sympathy, every feeling of compunction, respect, gratitude, pity, must be crushed by terror out of the hearts of men.⁷ The Grand Inquisitor opened his Court, with the Chancellor, and as many of the King's ministers as were present. The apprehension of the Templars, in order to their safe custody, and with the intent to deliver them over to the Church, was assumed, or declared to be within the province of the temporal power. The final judgment was reserved for the Archbishops and Bishops: but the Head of the Inquisition, the Dominican William Imbert, thus lent the terrors of his presence to the King's commission.

The tribunal sat from day to day, endeavouring to extort confession from the one hundred and ^{The tribu-} forty prisoners, who were separately examined. ^{nal.} These men, some brave and well-born, but mostly rude and illiterate soldiers, some humble servitors of the Order, were brought up from their dungeons without counsel, mutual communication, or legal advice, and submitted to every trial which subtlety or cruelty could invent, or which could work on the feebler or the firmer mind,—shame, terror, pain, the hope of impunity, of reward. Confession was bribed out of some by offers of indulgence, wrung from others by the dread of torture, by actual torture,—torture, with the various ways of which our hearts must be shocked, that we may judge more fairly on their effects. These were among the forms of procedure by torture in those times, without doubt mercilessly employed in the dungeons which

⁷ "Ne populus scandalizaretur de eorum tam subitanea captione. Erant quippe potentissimi divitiis et honore."—Vit. I. p. 9

confined the Templars. The criminal was stripped, his hands tied behind him ; the cord which lashed
Tortures his hands hung upon a pulley at some height above. At the sign of the judge he was hauled up with a frightful wrench, and then violently let fall to the ground. This was called in the common phrase, hoisting. It was the most usual, perhaps the mildest form of torture. After that the feet of the criminal were fixed in a kind of stocks, rubbed with oil, and fire applied to the soles. If he showed a disposition to confess, a board was driven between his feet and the fire ; if he gave no further hopes, it was withdrawn again. Then iron boots were fitted to the naked heels, and contracted either by wedges or in some other manner. Splinters of wood were driven up the nails into the finger-joints ; teeth were wrenched out ; heavy weights hung on the most sensitive parts of the body, even on the genitals. And these excruciating agonies were inflicted by the basest executioners, on proud men, suddenly degraded into criminals, their spirits shattered either by the sudden withdrawal from the light of day, from the pride, pomp, it might be the luxury of life into foul, narrow, sunless dungeons ; or more slowly broken by long incarceration in these clammy, noisome holes : some almost starved. The effect upon their minds will appear hereafter from the horror and shuddering agony with which they are reverted to by the bravest Knights. If their hard frames, inured to endurance in adventure and war, might feel less acutely the bodily sufferings, their lofty and generous minds would be more sensitive to the shame and degradation. Knights were racked like the basest slaves ; and there was nothing to awaken, everything to repress, the pride of endurance ; no publicity, nothing of the stern consolation of defying, or bearing

bravely or contemptuously before the eyes of men the cruel agony. It was all secret, all in the depths of the gloomy dungeon, where human sympathy and human admiration could not find their way. And according to the rigour and the secrecy of the torture was the terrible temptation of the weak or fearful, of those whose patience gave way with the first wrench of the rack, to purchase impunity by acknowledging whatever the accuser might suggest: to despair of themselves, of the Order, whose doom might seem irretrievably, irrevocably sealed. Their very vices (and no doubt many had vices), the unmeasured haughtiness of most, the licentious self-indulgence of some, would aggravate the trial; utter prostration would follow overweening pride, softness, luxury.

Some accordingly admitted at once or slowly, and with bitter tears, a part or the whole of the charges; some as it seemed, touched with Confessions. repentance, some at the threats, at the sight of the instruments of torture; some not till after long actual suffering; some beguiled by bland promises; some subdued by starvation in prison. Many, however, persevered to the end in calm and steadfast denial, more retracted their confessions, and expired upon the rack.* The King himself, by one account, was present at the examination of the Grand Master: the awe of the royal presence wrought some to confession. But Philip with-

* "Factumque est ut eorum nonnulli sponte quedam præmissorum vel omnia lærymabiliter sunt confessi. Alii quidem, ut videbatur, penitentia ducti, alii autem diversis tormentis questionati, vel comminatione vel eorum aspectu perterriti; alii blandis tracti promissionibus et illecti; alii carcere

inedia cruciati vel coacti multipliciterque compulsi. . . . Multi tamen penitus omnia negaverunt, et plures qui confessi primo fuerunt ad negationem postea reversi sunt, in ea fortiter perseverantes, quorum nonnulli inter ipsa supplicia perierunt."—Continuat. Nangis.

drew, it should seem, when tortures were actually applied, under which, it is said, in the unintentional irony of the historian, some *willingly* confessed, though others died without confession. To those who confessed the King seemed disposed to hold out the possibility of mercy.^a

After some interval the University of Paris was summoned to the Temple to hear nothing less than the confession of the Grand Master himself. How Du Molay was wrought to confession, by what persuasion or what violence, remained among the secrets of his dungeon; it is equally uncertain what were the articles which he confessed. Some at this trial asserted that the accursed form of initiation had been unknown in the Order till within the last forty years. But this was not enough; they must be won or compelled, to more full acknowledgement. At a second session before the University the Master and the rest pleaded guilty, and in the name of the whole Order, to all the charges.^b The King's Almoner, the Treasurer of the Temple at Paris, made the same confession. But this confession of the Grand Master, however industriously bruited abroad, in whatever form it might seem fit to the enemies of the Order, though no doubt it had a powerful effect

^a "Magister militiæ Templariorum cum multis militibus, et viris magnis sui Ordinis captus apud Parisios coram Rege productus fuisset. Tunc quidam ipsorum propter vaieundiam vaientem de præmissis denegaverunt, et quidam alii ipsam sibi confessi fuerunt. Sed postea illi qui denegabant cum tormentis ipsam tunc libenter confitebantur, et aliqui ipsorum in tormentis vine confessione moriebantur,

tui, vel comburebantur (the burning was later). Et tunc de contentibus ultra (ultra?) veritatem ipse nihil se habebat."—Vit. VI. apud Baluz. p. 101.

^b They were not content to admit "quosdam articulorum." "Itam in alia congregatione coram Universitate Magister et alii plures simpliciter sunt confessi, et Magister pro toto Ordine."—Vit. I. p. 10.

upon the weaker brethren who sought a precedent for their weakness, and with those who might think a cause abandoned by the Grand Master utterly desperate, by no means produced complete submission. Still a great number of the Knights repudiated the base example, disbelieved its authenticity, or excused it, as wrung from him by intolerable tortures; they sternly adhered to their denial. One brave old Knight in the South declared that "if the Grand Master had uttered such things, he had lied in his throat."

The interrogatory had done its work. The prisoners were carried back to their dungeons, some in the Temple, some in the Louvre, and in other prisons. The Grand Master with the three Preceptors of the Order were transferred to the royal castle of Corbeil; the Treasurers to Moret. In these prisons many died of hunger, of remorse, and anguish of mind; some hung themselves in despair.*

With no less awful despatch proceeded the interrogatories in other parts of France. Everywhere torture was prodigally used; everywhere was the same result, some free confessions, some retractations of confessions; some bold and inflexible denials of the whole; some equivocations, some submissions manifestly racked out of unwilling witnesses by imprisonment, exhaustion, and agony.

The Grand Inquisitor proceeded on a circuit to Bayeux: in the other northern cities he delegated his work usually to Dominican Friars. Thirteen were examined at Caen, seven of them had been previously interrogated at Pont de

Interrogatories in the Provinces.
Oct. 23, 1307.

* "Ubi fama referebat, plures mortuos fuisse inedia, vel cordis tristitia, vel ex desperatione suspendio penisse."—Vit. I.

l'Arche. Twelve made confession after torture, on the promise of absolution from the Church, and security against secular punishment. Ten others were examined at Pont de l'Arche. In the south, of seven at Cahors, two recanted their confession. At Clermont twenty-nine obstinately denied the charges, forty admitted their truth. Two German Templars, returning from Paris, were arrested at Chaumont, in Lorraine; they steadfastly denied the whole. In the seneschalty of Beaucaire and Nismes^a sixty-six Templars had been arrested by Edward de Maubrisson and William de St. Just, the Lieutenant of the Seneschal, Bertrand Jourdain de l'Isle. They had been committed to different prisons. Edward de Maubrisson held his first sitting at Aigues Mortes upon forty-five who were in the dungeons of that city. The King's Advocate, the King's Justice, and two other nobles were present, but no ecclesiastic either during this or any of the subsequent sessions. According to the precise instructions the following questions were put to the criminals, but cautiously and carefully,^b and at first only in general terms, in order to elicit free confession. Where it was necessary torture was to be applied. I. That on the reception the postulant was led into a sacristy behind the altar, commanded thrice to deny Christ, and to spit on the crucifix. Then, II. When he was unclothed, the Initiator kissed him on the navel, the spine, and the mouth. III. He was granted full licence for the indulgence of unnatural lusts. IV. Girt with a cord which had been drawn

^a In this seneschalty lay the great estate of William of Nogaret. There are several royal grants in the documents at the end of Ménard, *Histoire de Nismes*,

vol. i., which show that Nogaret was not sparingly rewarded, even by his parsimonious king, for his services.

^b "Caute et diligenter."

across the idol-head. In the provincial chapters an idol, a human head was worshipped. V. The clerical brethren were alone to be pressed on the omission of the words in the mass.

Eight servitors were first introduced. They confessed the whole of the first charges; they declared Nov. 8,
1807. that they had denied Christ in fear of imprisonment, even of death; but they had denied him with the lips, not the heart; they swore that they had never committed unnatural crimes; of the idol and the omission of the words in the mass they knew nothing. On the following day thirty-five more were examined, all servitors except one clerk and three Knights, Pons Seguin, Bertrand de Silva, Bertrand de Salgues. The same confession, word for word, the same reservation: the priest alone acknowledged that he had administered an unconsecrated Host, omitting the words of consecration; but in his heart he had never neglected to utter them. There is throughout the same determination to limit the confession to the narrowest bounds, to keep to the words of the charges, absolutely to exculpate themselves, and to criminate the Order, from which some might rejoice to be released, others think irrevocably doomed. They were all afterwards summoned, in the presence of two monks in the Dominican cloister at Nismes, to whom the Grand Inquisitor had given power to act for the Holy Office, to repeat their confession, and admonished within eight days still further to confess any heresies of which they might have been guilty. Maubrisson also passed to Nismes; fifteen servitors were interrogated; there were the same confessions, the same denials. At Carcassonne the Preceptor of the wealthy house of Villedieu, Casaignes, with four others, was examined before the

Bishop, Peter de Rochefort: they admitted all, even the idol.[†]

The Pope was no less astounded than the rest of Christendom by this sudden and rapid measure, so opposite to the tardy and formal procedures of the Roman Court. It was a flagrant and insulting invasion of the Papal rights, the arrest of a whole religious Order, under the special and peculiar protection of the Pope, and the seizure of all their estates and goods, so far as yet appeared, for the royal use. It looked at first like a studied exclusion of all spiritual persons even from the interrogatory. Clement could not suppress his indignation: he broke out into angry expressions against the King; he issued a Bull, in which he declared it an unheard-of measure that the secular power should presume to judge religious persons; to the Pope alone belonged the jurisdiction over the Knights Templars. He deposed William Imbert from the office of Grand Inquisitor, as having presumptuously overstepped his powers. He sent two Legates, the Cardinal Berenger of Fredeol and Stephen of Suza, to demand the surrender of the prisoners and of their estates to the Pope. In a letter to the Archbishops of Rheims, Bourges and Tours, he declared that he had been utterly amazed at the arrest of the Templars, and the hasty proceedings of the Grand Inquisitor, who, though he lived in his immediate neighbourhood, had given him no intimation of the King's design. He had his own views on the subject; his mind could not be induced to believe the charges.*

[†] The report, the fullest and most minute of all, as to the interrogatories at Nismes, is dated 1310. But it contains the earlier proceedings from the beginning of the prosecution out of the Authentic Acts. I have therefore dwelt upon it more at length.—Méhard, *Hist. de Nismes*, p. 449 Preuves, p. 195.

* Dachery, *Spicilegium*, x. 366.

But, when the first impulse of his wrath was over, the Pope felt his own impotence; he was in the coils, in the power, now imprudently within the dominions, of the relentless Philip; his resentment speedily cooled down. The great prelates of France arrayed themselves on the side of the King. The King held secret councils at Melun, and at other places, with the Princes and Bishops of the realm, meditating, it might be, strong measures against the Pope. Somewhat later, the Archbishop of Rheims announced to the King that himself, with his Suffragans and Chapter, had met at Senlis, and were prepared to aid the King in the prosecution of the Templars.^b

The King of France had laid down a wide scheme for the suppression of the Templars, not in his own dominions alone, but throughout Christendom. Abolished on account of their presumed irregularities in France, they could not be permitted, as involved in the same guilt, to subsist in the English dominions in France, in Provence, or even in England. Already, on the issuing the instructions for their arrest, ^{Message to England.} Philip had despatched an ecclesiastic, Bernard Pelet, to his son-in-law, Edward II. of England, to inform him of their guilt and heresy, and to urge him to take the same measures for their apprehension. Edward and his Barons declared themselves utterly amazed at the demand.^c Neither he nor his Prelates and Barons could at first credit the abominable and execrable charges; but before the end of the year, the Pope himself, as

^a "Ad vestram presenciam duximus destinandum (episcopum) ad assentendum secundum Deum et justitiam vestre majestati."—Archives Admi-

nistrat, de Rheims, Collect. Documents Insdits, ii. 65.

^b 22nd Sept., Edwardus Philippo.—Rymer, iii. ad ann. 1307.

if unwilling that Edward, as Philip had done, should take the affair into his own hands and proceed without Papal authority, hastened to issue a Bull, in which he commanded the King to arrest all the Templars in his dominions, and to sequester their lands and property. The Bull, however, seemed studiously to limit the guilt to individual members of the Order.^k The goods were to be retained for the service of the Holy Land, if the Order should be condemned, otherwise to be preserved for the Order. It referred to the confession of the Grand Master at Paris, that this abuse had crept in at the instigation of Satan, contrary to the Institutes of the Order. The Pope declares that one brother of the Order, a man of high birth and rank, had made full confession to himself of his crime; that in the kingdom of Cyprus a noble knight had made his abnegation of Christ at the command of the Grand Master in the presence of a hundred knights.

King Edward had hesitated. On the 4th December, as though under the influence of the Templars themselves, he wrote to the Kings of Portugal, Castile, Sicily, and Arragon. He expressed strong suspicion of Bernard Pelet, who had presumed to make some horrid and detestable accusations against the Order, and endeavoured by letters of certain persons, which he had produced (those of the King of France), but had procured, as Edward believed, by undue means, to induce the King to imprison all the brethren of the Temple in his dominions. He urged those Kings to avert their ears from the calumniators of the Order, to join him in pro-

^k "Quod singuli fratres dicti ordinis in sua professione . . . expressis verbis abnegant Jes. Christum, . . ." See the Bull, "Pastoralle præeminentie solio."—Raynaldus sub ann. Nov 22, Rymer.

tecting the Knights from the avarice and jealousy of their enemies.^m Still later, King Edward, in a letter to the Pope, asserts the pure faith and lofty morals of the Order, and speaks of the detractions and calumnies of a few persons jealous of their greatness, and convicted of ill will to the Order.ⁿ

The Papal Bull either appalled or convinced the King of England. Only five days after his letter (the Bull having arrived in the interim), ^{Arrest.} orders were issued to the sheriffs for the general arrest of the Templars throughout England. The persons of the Knights were to be treated with respect, the inventory of their names and effects returned ^{Dec. 20.} into the Exchequer at Westminster. The same instructions were sent to Wales, Ireland, and Scotland. On the 28th December the King informed the Pope that he would speedily carry his commands into execution. On the Wednesday after Epiphany the arrest took place with the same simultaneous promptitude as in France, and without resistance.

The King of Naples, as Count of Provence, followed exactly the plan of the King of France. He ^{King of Naples.} transmitted sealed instructions to all the officers of the Crown, which were to be opened on the 24th January. On the 25th all the Templars in Provence and Forcalquier were committed to the prisons of Aix and Pertuis; those of the counties of Nice, Grasse, St. Maurice, and the houses in Avignon and Arles, to the Castle of Meirargues.

Just at this juncture an appalling event took place,

^m "Aures vestras a perversorum detractionibus, qui, ut credimus, non zelo — Redyng. Dec. 4, Rymer sub ann.
—rectitudinis sed cupiditate et invidia spiritibus excitantur, avertere velitis
ⁿ Rymer, Dec. 10.

which in some degree distracted the attention of Christendom from the rapidly unfolding tragedy of the Templars, and had perhaps no inconsiderable though remote influence on their doom. The Emperor Albert was murdered at Königstein by his own nephew, John, in the full view of their ancestral house.* The King of France was known to aspire to the imperial crown, if not for himself, for his brother Charles of Valois. He instantly despatched ambassadors to secure the support of the Pope for Charles of Valois—Charles, the old enemy of Clement, to whom he had been reconciled only on compulsion. It is even asserted that he demanded this as the last, the secret stipulation, sworn to by the Pope when he sold himself to the King for the tiara.^p But the accumulation of

* Coxe has told coldly the terrible vengeance of the Empress Agnes. She witnessed the execution of sixty-three of the retainers of the Lord of Balm, the accomplice of John of Hapsburg—"Now," she said, as the blood flowed, "I bathe in honey dew." She founded the magnificent convent of Königstein, of which fine ruins remain. Christianity still finds a voice in the wildest and worst times. The rebuke of the hermit to the vengeful Empress must be heard: "God is not served by shedding innocent blood, and by building convents from the plunder of families, but by confession and forgiveness of injuries."—Compare Coxe's Austria, ch. vi.

^p "Rex autem Francie Philippus, auditâ vacatione imperii, cogitavit facile posse imperium redire ad Francos, ratione sextæ promissionis factæ sibi a Papâ, si operam daret ut papa crearetur, sicut factum est. Nam cum

explicasset jam eam, videlicet in delendo quicquid gestum fuit per Bonifacium et memoriam ejus, ad quod Papa se difficultabat, et in posterum hoc offerebat agendum, arbitratus est Rex commutari facere quod fuerat postulatum ab eo in sibi utilius et honorabilius negotium, ut videlicet loco prædictæ petitionis hoc concederetur, ut Dominus Carolus Valisiensis, frater ejus eligeretur in Imperatorem. Quod satis æquum et exigibile videbatur, cum Bonifacius Papa hoc ei promississet, et ad hoc multa fecerat pro ecclesiâ. Sed et olim imperium fuerat apud Francos tempore Caroli magni, translatum a Grecis ad eos, sic possit transire de Teutonicis ad Francos."—S. Antonini Chronicon, iii. p. 276. This Chronicle is a compilation in the words of other writers, but shows what writers were held in best esteem, when the Archbishop of Florence (afterwards canonised) wrote during the next century.

crowns on the heads of the princes of France was not more formidable to the liberties of Europe than to the Pope, who must inevitably sink even into more ignoble vassalage. A Valois ruled in France and in Naples. A daughter of the King of France was on the throne of England: it might be hoped, or foreseen, that the young, beautiful, and ambitious bride might wean her feeble husband from the disgraceful thralldom of his minions, and govern him who could not govern himself. If Charles were Emperor, what power in Europe could then resist or control this omnipotent house of Valois?

Philip had already bought the vote and support of the Archbishop of Cologne; he anticipated the tame acquiescence of the Pope. Charles of Valois visited the Pope with the ostentation of respect, but at the head of six thousand men-at-arms.

But the sagacious Cardinal da Prato was at hand to keep alive the fears and to guide the actions of Clement. The Pope had no resource but profound dissimulation, or rather consummate falsehood. He wrote publicly to recommend Charles of Valois to the electors; his secret agents urged them to secure their own liberties and the independence of the Church by any other choice.^a The election dragged on for some months of doubt, vacillation, and intrigue. At length ^{Henry of} Henry ^{Luxemburg} Emperor, of Luxemburg was named King of the Romans.^r Clement pretended to submit to the hard necessity of consenting to a choice in which six of the electors had concurred; he could no longer in decency assert the claims of Charles of Valois. Philip suppressed but did not the less brood over his disappointment and wrath.

^a "Sed omnipotens Deus (writes S. Antoninus) qui dissipat consilia principum . . . non permisit iam ipsam suum habere effectum, ne ecclesia regnū Franciæ subiceretur."—*Ibid.*

^r At Frankfort, Nov. 27, 1308.

Thus all this time, if Clement had any lingering desire to show favour or justice to the Templars, or to maintain the Order, it had sunk into an object not only secondary to that which he thought his paramount duty and the chief interest of the Papacy, to avert the condemnation from the memory of Boniface; but also to that of rescuing the imperial crown from the grasp of France. To contest a third, a more doubtful issue with King Philip, was in his situation, and with his pliant character, with his fatal engagements, and his want of vigour and moral dignity, beyond his powers.

The King neglected no means to overawe the Pope.

Parliament
of Tours

He had succeeded in making his quarrel with Pope Boniface a national question. For the first time the Commons of France had been summoned formally and distinctly to the Parliament, which had given weight and dignity to the King's proceedings against Pope Boniface.* The States-General, the burghers and citizens, as well as the nobles and prelates, the whole French nation, were now again summoned to a Parliament at Tours on May 1. Philip knew that by this time he had penetrated the whole realm with his hatred of the Templars. The Order had been long odious to the clergy, as interfering with their proceedings, and exercising spiritual functions at least within their own precincts. The Knights sat proudly aloof in their own fastnesses, and despised the jurisdiction of the Bishop or the Metropolitan. The excommunication, the interdict, which smote or silenced the clergy, had no effect within the walls of the Temple. Their bells tolled, their masses were chanted, when all the rest of the kingdom was in silence and sorrow; men

* See above, p. 117.

fled to them to find the consolations forbidden elsewhere. Their ample and growing estates refused to pay tithe to the clergy; their exemption rested on Papal authority. It was one of the charges which in enormity seemed to be not less hateful than the most awful blasphemy or the foulest indulgences, that the great officers, the Grand Master, though not in orders, dared to pronounce the absolution. The Nobles were jealous of a privileged Order, and no doubt with the commonalty looked to some lightening of their own burthens from the confiscation, to which they would willingly give their suffrage, of the estates of the Templars; nor did these proud feudal lords like men prouder than themselves.[†] Among the commonalty the dark rumours so industriously disseminated, the reports of full and revolting confessions, had now been long working; the popular mind was fully possessed with horror at these impious, execrable practices. At particular periods, free institutions are the most ready and obsequious instruments of tyranny: the popular Parliament of Philip the Fair sanctioned, by their acclamation, his worst iniquities;[‡] and the politic Philip, before this appeal to the people, knew well to what effect the popular voice would speak. The Parliament of Tours, with hardly a dissentient vote, declared the Templars worthy of death.[§] The University of Paris gave the weight of their judgement as to the fulness and authenticity of the confessions; at the same time they reasserted the sole right of the Roman Court to pass the final sentence.

[†] Eight of the nobility of Languedoc, at the Parliament of Tours, entrusted their powers to William of Nogaret.—Hist. de Languedoc, iv. 148.

[‡] "Intendebat enim Rex sapienter

agere. Et alio volebat hominem cujuslibet conditionis regni sui habere judicium vel assensum, ne possit in aliquo reprehendi."—Vit. i. c. 12.

[§] Vit. l. ibid.

From Tours, the King, with his sons, brothers, and chief counsellors, proceeded at Whitsuntide to the Pope at Poitiers. He came armed with the Acts of the General Estates of the realm. They were laid before the Pope by William de Plasian. The Pope was summoned to proceed against the Order for confessed and notorious heresy.

This appeal to his tribunal seemed to awaken Clement to the consciousness of his strength. For the temporal power to assume the right, even now when the Pope was in the King's realm, of adjudging in causes of heresy, was too flagrant an invasion on the spiritual power. The fate of the Order too must depend on the Pope. The King might seize, imprison, interrogate, even put to the torture, individual Templars, his subjects; but the dissolution of the Order, founded under the Papal sanction, guaranteed by so many Papal Bulls, could not be commanded by any other authority. Clement entrenched himself behind the yet lingering awe, the yet unquestioned dignity of the Papal See. "The charges were heavy, but they had been pressed on with indecent haste, without consulting the successor of St. Peter; the Grand Inquisitor had exceeded his powers; the Pope demanded that all the prisoners should be made over to himself, the sole judge in such high matters." Long and sullen discussions took place between the Cardinals and the Counsellors of the King.*

The King (the affair of the Empire was not settled, that was the secret of Clement's power) was unwilling to drive the Pope to extremities. He ordered copies of

* "Fuitque ibi pretactum negotium factis, allegationibus et rationibus, pro parte Papæ et responsionibus pro Rege, rationibusque et replicationibus multis utrinque coram cardinalibus cleoque et cæteris qui aderant morosè discussum."—Vit. i.

all the proceedings against the Knights, and the inventories of their goods, to be furnished to the Pontiff. This Clement took in good part. The custody of the estates and property of the Order had given a perilous advantage to the King. The Pope now issued a circular Bull to the Archbishops and Bishops of France to take upon themselves the administration of all the sequestered goods; and to them was to be consigned, to each within his own diocese, the final examination and judgement.^a The Templars caught at the faint gleam of hope that the Church would assume the judgement; they were fondly possessed with a notion of the justice, the humanity of the Church. Some instantly recanted their confessions. The King broke out into a passion of wrath. He publicly proclaimed, that while he faithfully discharged the duties of a Christian king and a servant of the Lord, the lukewarm Vicegerent of Christ was tampering with heresy, and must answer before God for his guilt. The Pope took alarm. At length it was agreed that the custody both of the persons and the goods should remain with the King; that the Knights should be maintained in prison, where they were to lie, out of the revenues of their estates; that no personal punishment should be inflicted without the consent of the Pope; that the fate of the Order should be determined at the great Council of Vienne, summoned for October 10, 1310.^a Clement reserved for himself the

^a Clemens Philippo.—Baluz. n. 98. The date is erroneous; it should be July 3, 1308.

^a "Tandem conventum est inter eos, quod Rex bona eorum omnia levaret, seu levare faceret fideiiter per ministros, et servare ea usquequo Papa cum ipso Rege deliberasset quid regi

expediret, sed punitionem corporum non faceret; corpora tamen eorum servari faceret, sicut fecerat, et de proventibus domorum Templi sustentari usque ad concilium generale futurum: corpora autem ex tunc ponebat Papa in manu sua." This left, as we shall see, all future public trial to the Church.—Vit. i. p. 13.

sentence on the Grand Master and other chief officers of the Temple.

Yet before Philip left Poitiers, seventy-two Templars were brought from different prisons (with the King and the King's Counsellors rested the selection) they were interrogated before the Pope and the Cardinals. All confessed the whole: they were remanded. In a few days after, their confessions were read to them in the vulgar tongue, in the Consistory; all adhered to their truth.

But the Grand Master and some of the principal preceptors of the Order—those of Normandy, Aquitaine, and Poitou—were now in confinement in the castle of Chinon. Some of them could not mount on horseback, some were so weak that they could not be conveyed to Poitiers:^b the torture and the dungeon had done their work. Three Cardinals (Berenger of S. Nireus and Achilles, Stephen of S. Cyriac, Landolph of S. Angelo) were commissioned to go and receive their depositions. The Cardinals reported that all those Knights, in the presence of public notaries and other good men, had sworn on the Gospels, without compulsion or fear, to the denial of Christ, and the insult to the cross on initiation; some others to foul and horrible offences, not to be named. Du Molay had confessed the denial; he had empowered a servitor of the Order to make the rest of his confession.^c The Cardinals, having regard to their penitence, had pronounced the absolution of the Church, and recommended them to the royal mercy.^d

The Pope pretended that conviction had been forced upon him by these dreadful revelations. He now issued

^b "Sed quoniam quidam ex eis sic infirmabantur tunc temporis, quod equitare non poterant, nec ad nostram presenciam quoquomodo adduci."—

The Pope's own words in the B^{vi} "*Faciens misericordiam*" 11

^c See on p. 180. ^d Epistol. Cardinalium.—Baluz. ii. 121.

a Bull, addressed to all Christendom, in which he declared how slowly and with difficulty he had been compelled to believe the infamy, the apostasy of the noble and valiant Order. His beloved son, the King of France, not urged by avarice,* for he had not intended to confiscate or appropriate to his own use the goods of the Templars (he that excuses sometimes accuses!), but actuated solely by zeal for the faith, had laid information before him which he could not but receive. One Knight of noble race, and of no light esteem (could this be Squino de Florian, the Prior of Montfalcon?), had deposed in secret, and upon his oath, to these things. It had now been confirmed by seventy-two, who had confessed the guilt of the Order to him; the Grand Master and the others to the Cardinals. Throughout the world therefore, he commanded, by this Apostolic Bull, that proceedings should be instituted against the Knights of the Temple, against the Preceptor of the Order in Germany. The result was to be transmitted, under seal, to the Pope. The secular arm might be called in to compel witnesses who were contemptuous of Church censures to bear their testimony.†

Pope Clement, when this conference was over, hastened to leave his honourable imprisonment at Poitiers. He passed some months at Bordeaux, the Cardinals in the neighbourhood. After the winter he retired to Avignon, hereafter to be the residence of the Transalpine Popes.‡ As he passed through Toulouse

* Is it charity in the Pope to exculpate the king of avarice? "*Non gippo avaritia, cum de bonis Templariorum nihil sibi vindicare vel appropriare intendat,*" or adroitness to clench his concession? See the secret compact about the custody of the goods,—

Dupuy, *Condemnation*, p. 107.

† The Bull, "*Faciens misericordiam,*" dated Aug. 12, 1308.

‡ Baluz. ii, p. 134. He was at Narbonne, April 5, 1309, then at Montpellier and Nismes; he arrived at Avignon at the end of April.—Ménaud, p. 456.

he addressed a circular letter to the King of France, in which, having declared the unanswerable evidence of the heresy and the guilt of the Templars, he prohibited all men from aiding, counselling, or favouring, from harbouring or concealing, any member of the proscribed Order; he commanded all persons to seize, arrest, and commit them to safe custody. All this under the pain of severe spiritual censure. Yet there were many who stole away unperceived; and for concealment or from want submitted to the humblest functions of society, to plebeian services or illiberal arts. Many bore exile, degradation, indigence, with noble magnanimity—all asserting, wherever it was safe to assert it, as in the Ghibelline cities of Lombardy, the entire and irreproachable innocence of the Order.^h

As he passed through Nismes, the Pope issued his commission to Bertrand, Bishop of that city, to reinvestigate the guilt of the prisoners. Bertrand held one session; then, on account of his age and infirmity, devolved the office on William St. Lawrence Curé of Durfort. Durfort opened his court first at Nismes, afterwards at Alais. Thirty-two, a few Knights, others servitors, the same who had confessed before the royal commissioners—now that the milder and more impartial Church sat in judgement—now that their chains were

^h "Si qui autem ex Templariorum cœtu manumissi aut per fugam abstracti evadere potuerunt, projecto Religionis suæ habitu ministeriis plebeis ignoti, aut artibus illiberalibus se dederunt. Nonnulli autem ex clarissimis parentibus orta, dum transfugæ laboribus multis et periculis dudum expositi, vitæ tædium magnificis animorum nobilium conatibus

vilipenderunt, ultio se gentibus edidit, adjurantes se objecti criminis prius insontes." Farretus of Vicenza had before said (and in Lombardy the refugees would not fear to describe their sufferings) that many had died in prison, "tam diu vinculis retentos pædoris squallorisque rigidi angustia peremit."—Apud Murator. R. I. S. ix. p. 1017.

struck off, and they felt their limbs free, and hoped that they should not return to their fetid prisons—almost with one voice disclaimed their confessions. One only, manifestly in a paroxysm of fright, and in the eager desire of obtaining absolution, recanted his recantation. Another, Drohet, had abandoned the Order; he confessed, but only from hearsay, and intreated not to be sent back to prison among men whose heresy he detested. A third appeared to the Court to have concerted his evidence, was remanded, made amends by a more ample confession, clearly from panic: he had heard of the cat-idol. The rest firmly, resolutely denied all.¹

¹ The examination at Alais began June 19, 1810, ended July 14. St. Lawrence took as his assessors two canons of Nismes, three Dominicans, two Franciscans of Alais (Ménard, p. 260). Eight were brought from Nismes (of these were three knights), seventeen from Aigues Mortes, seven from the prisons in Alais. It should

be added that the recanting witness Bernard Arnold, swore that the prisoners had met to concert—when and where?—“*quod cotidie tenebant sua colloquia et suos tractatus super hinc; et sese ad invicem instruunt qualiter negent omnia, et dicant dictum ordinem bonum esse et sanctum.*”—*Preuves*, p. 175.

CHAPTER II.

Process of the Templars.

THE affair of the Templars slumbered for some months, but it slumbered to awaken into terrible activity. A Papal Commission^a was now opened to inquire, not into the guilt of the several members of the Order, but of the Order itself. The Order was to be arraigned before the Council of Vienne, which was to decide on its reorganisation or its dissolution. This Commission therefore superseded all the ordinary jurisdictions either of the Bishop or of the Inquisition, and, in order to furnish irrefragable proof before the Council, summoned before it for re-examination all who had before made depositions in those Courts. Their confessions were put in as evidence, but they had the opportunity of recanting or disclaiming those confessions.^b

At the head of the Commission was Gilles d'Aiscelin, Archbishop of Narbonne, a man of learning, but no strength of character; the Bishop of Mende, who owed his advancement to King Philip; the Bishops of Bayeux and Limoges; the Archdeacons of Rouen (the Papal Notary), of Trent, and Maguelonne, and the Provost of Aix. The Provost excused himself from attendance. The Archbishop and the Bishop of Bayeux grew weary and withdrew themselves gradually, on various pretexts, from the sittings.

^a Aug. 1309. The Commission sat, with some intermission, to May, 1311

^b See Haveman, p. 227.

The Commission opened its Court in the Bishop's palace at Paris^c August 7th, 1309. The Bull issued by the Pope at Poitiers was read.^d Then, after other documents, a citation of the Order of Knights Templars, and all and every one of the Brethren of the said Order. This citation was addressed to the Archbishops of the nine Provinces, Sens, Rheims, Rouen, Tours, Lyons, Bourges, Bordeaux, Narbonne, and Auch, and to their suffragans. It was to be suspended on the doors of all cathedral and collegiate churches, public schools, and court-houses, the houses of the Templars, and the prisons where the Templars were confined. Sworn messengers were despatched to promulgate this citation in the provinces and dioceses. The Templars were to appear on the day after the Feast of St. Martin.

On that day not a Templar was seen. Whether the Bishops were reluctant to give orders, or the keepers of the prisons to obey orders; whether no means of transport had been provided, no one knew; or, what is far less likely, that the Templars themselves shrunk from this new interrogatory, hardly hoping that it would be conducted with more mildness, or dreading that it might command fresh tortures. On five successive days proclamation was made by the apparitor of the Official of Paris, summoning the Knights to answer for their Order. No voice replied. On the Tuesday inquiry was made into the

Nov. 12.

Commission
at Paris.No Templars
appear.

^c The acts of this Commission are the most full, authentic, and curious documents in the history of the abolition of the Templars. They were published imperfectly, or rather a summary of them, by Moldenhauer, Hamburg, 1792. The complete and genuine proceedings have now ap-

peared in the original Latin, among the 'Documents Inédits sur l'Histoire de France,' under the care of M. Michelet. The second volume has recently been added. My citations, if not otherwise distinguished, refer to these volumes.

^d "Faciens misericordiam."

answers of the Bishops to the Court. Some were found to have published the citation, others to have neglected or disobeyed; from some had come no answers; to them letters were addressed of mild rebuke or exhortation. The Templars were to be informed that the investigation was not against individual members of the Order, but against the Order itself. No one was to be compelled to appear; but all who voluntarily undertook the defence of the Order had free liberty to go to Paris.*

On the 22nd of November the Bishop of Paris appeared in Court. He declared that he had himself gone to the prison in which the Grand Master, Hugo de Peyraud the Visitor of the Order, and other Knights were confined; that he had caused the Apostolic letter to be read in Latin, and explained in the vulgar tongue; that the Knights had declared themselves ready to appear before the Court; some were willing to defend the Order. He had published the citation in the churches and other public places, and sent persons of trust to make known and to explain the citation to all the prisoners in the city and diocese of Paris. Orders were issued to Philip de Vohet, Provost of the church of Poitiers, and John de Jamville, doorkeeper to the King, who had the general custody of the prisoners, to bring before the Court, under a strong and trusty guard, the Master, the Visitor, and all who would undertake the defence. The Provost and De Jamville bowed and promised to obey. On the same day appeared a man in a secular habit, who called himself John de Melot, of

* "Nec volumus quod contra fratres singulares dicti ordinis, et de hiis quos ipse tamquam singulares personas tangant, non intendimus inquirere contra eos, sed duntaxat contra ordinem supra-

dictum juxta traditam nobis formam. Nec fuit nostre intencionis, nec est, quod aliqui ex eis venire cogantur vel teneantur, sed solum il qui voluntarie venire valeant pro premissis."—p. 25.

the diocese of Besançon. He was manifestly a simple and bewildered man, who had left the Order or who had been dismissed ten years before, and seemed under the influence of panic. "He knew no harm of the Order, did not come to defend it, was ready to do or to suffer whatever the Court might ordain; he prayed that they would furnish him with subsistence, for he was very poor." The Court saw that he was half-witted, and sent him to the Bishop of Paris to be taken care of.^f Six Knights then stood before the Court. Gerald de Caus was asked why he appeared. He replied, in obedience to the citation: he was prepared to answer any interrogatory. The Court answered, that they compelled no one to come before them, and asked whether he was ready to defend the Order. After many words he said that he was a simple soldier, without house, arms, or land: he had neither ability nor knowledge to defend the Order. So said the other five. Then appeared Hugo de Peyraud, Visitor of the Order, under the custody of the Provost of Poitiers and John de Jamville. He came in consequence of the citation, made known by the Bishop of Paris, to answer any interrogatory. He came further to entreat the Pope and the King not to waste and dissipate the goods of the Temple, but religiously to devote them to their original use, the cause of the Holy Land. He had given his answers to the three Cardinals at Chinon, had been prepared to do the same before the Pope; he

Hugh de
Peyraud.

"Et quia fuit visum eisdem dominis commissariis, ex aspectu et consideratione personæ suæ, actuum, gestuum, et loquelæ, quod erat valde simplex val fatuus, et non bene compos mentis suæ, non processerunt

ulterius cum eodem."—p. 27. By some strange mistake of his own or of his authorities, Sismondi has attributed the speech and conduct of this poor crazy man to Du Molay.

could only say the same before the Commissioners. He too declined to undertake the defence, and was remanded to prison.*

After two days' adjournment, on Wednesday, November 26th, Du Molay, at his own request, was brought before the Court. He was asked whether he would defend the Order. "The Order was founded," he replied, "and endowed with its privileges by the Pope. He wondered that the Pope would proceed in such haste to the abolition of such an Order. The sentence hung over Frederick II. for thirty-two years. Himself was an unlearned man, unfit, without counsel, to defend the Temple; yet he was prepared to do it to the best of his ability. He should hold himself a base wretch, he would be justly held as a base wretch by others, if he defended not an Order from which he had received so much honour and advantage. Yet this was a hard task for one who had been thrown into prison by the King and by the Pope, and had but four deniers in the world to fee counsel. All he sought was that the truth might be known concerning the Order, not in France only, but before the kings, princes, prelates, and barons of the world. By the judgement of those kings, princes, prelates, and barons he would stand." The Court replied that he should deliberate well on his defence. The Master said, "he had but one attendant, a poor servitor of the Order: he was his cook." They

* The Court received private information that certain Templars had arrived in Paris, disguised in secular habits, and furnished with money to provide counsel and legal aid to defend the Order; they had been arrested by the king's officers; the Provost of the Châtelet was commanded to bring

them before the Court. It was a false alarm. One of them only had been a servitor for those monks; he was poor, and had come to Paris to seek a livelihood. They were gravely informed that if they designed to defend the Order, the Court was ready to hear them; they disclaimed such intention.

reminded him significantly of his confessions: they would have him to know that, in a case of heresy or faith, the course was direct and summary, without the noise and form of advocates and judicial procedure.

They then, without delay, read the Apostolic letters, and the confession which Du Molay was reported to have made before the three Cardinals. The Grand Master stood aghast; the gallant knight, the devout Christian, rose within him. Twice he signed himself with the sign of the cross. "If the Lords Commissioners were of other condition, he would answer them in another way." The Commissioners coldly replied "that they sat not there to accept wager of battle." Du Molay saw at once his error. "I meant not that, but would to God that the law observed by the Saracens and the Tartars, as to the forgers of false documents, were in use here! The Saracens and Tartars strike off the heads of such traitors, and cleave them to the middle." The Court only subjoined, "The Church passes sentence on heretics, and delivers over the obstinate to the secular arm."

William de Plasian, the subtlest of Philip's counsellors, was at hand. He led Du Molay aside: he protested that he loved him as a brother-soldier; he besought him with many words not to rush upon his ruin. Du Molay, confused, perplexed, feared that if he acted further without thought he might fall into some snare. He requested delay. He felt confidence (fatal confidence!) in De Plasian, for De Plasian was a knight!

The day after, Ponsard de Gisi, Preceptor of Payens, was brought up with Raoul de Gisi, Preceptor of Lagny Sec. Ponsard boldly declared him-
Nov. 27
self ready to undertake the defence of the Order. All the enormous charges against the Order were utterly,

absolutely false; false were all the confessions, extorted by terror and pain, from himself and other brethren before the Bishop of Paris. Those tortures had been applied by the sworn and deadly enemies and accusers of the Order, by the Prior of Montfalcon, and William Roberts, the monk.^k He put in a schedule:—"These are the traitors who have falsely and disloyally accused the religion of the Temple: William Roberts the monk, who had them put to the torture; Esquin de Florian of Beziers, Prior of Montfalcon; Bernard Pelet, Prior of Maso (Philip's Envoy to England); and Gervais Boysol, Knight of Gisors."^l

Had Ponsard himself been tortured? He had been tortured before the Bishop of Paris three months ere he made confession. His hands had been tied behind him till the blood burst from his nails. He had stood thus in a pit for the space of an hour.^k He protested that in that state of agony he should confess or deny whatever they would. He was prepared to endure beheading, the stake, or the cauldron, for the honour of the Order; but these slow, excruciating torments he could not bear, besides the horrors of his two years' imprisonment. He was asked if he had anything to allege wherefore the Court should not proceed. He hoped that the cause would be decided by good men and true.^m The Provost

^k "Per vim et propter periculum et timoram, quia torquebantur a Florigerano de Biturris, priori Montefalconis, Gulielmo Roberto monacho, inimicis eorum." This is a new and terrible fact, that the accusers, even the Prior of Montfalcon, were the *torturers*!

^l Moldenhauer says that they gave in a paper, "Ces sont les traytoirs, liquel ont proposé fausseté et debaute

contre leste de la Religion deu Temple, Guillalmes Robers Moynes, qui les mitoyet a geinas; Esquins de Flexian de Biterris, en Priens de Montfaucon, Bernard Peleti Priens de Maso de Genois, et Everannes de Bozzol, Echallier vengus a Gisors" (*sic*).—p. 33.

^k Lauge.

^m See also this in the *Procès* and in Moldenhauer; p. 35.

of Poitiers interposed; he produced a schedule of charges advanced by Ponsard himself against the Order. "Truth," answered Ponsard, "requires no concealment. I own that, in a fit of passion, on account of some contumelious words with the Treasurer of the Temple, I did draw up that schedule." Those charges, however, dark as were some of them, were totally unlike those now brought against the brotherhood. Before he left the Court Ponsard expressed his hope that the severity of his imprisonment might not be aggravated because he had undertaken the defence of the Order. The Court gave instructions to the Provost of Poitiers and De Jamville that he should not be more harshly treated.

On the Friday before the Feast of St. Andrew Du Molay appeared again. De Plasian had ^{Du Molay} alarmed, or persuaded or caressed him to a ^{again.} more calm and suppliant demeanour. He thanked the commissioners for their indulgence in granting delay. Asked if he would defend the Order, he said that "he was an unlettered and a poor man. The Pope had reserved for his own decision the judgement on himself and other heads of the Order. He prayed to be brought, as speedily as might be (for life was short), into the presence of the Pope." Asked whether he saw cause why the Court should not proceed, not against individual Knights, but against the Order, he replied, "None; but to disburthen his conscience, he must aver three things: I. That no religious edifices were adorned with so much splendour and beauty as the chapels of the Templars, nor the services performed with greater majesty, except in cathedral churches; II. That no Order was more munificent in almsgiving; III. That no Brotherhood and no Christians had confronted death more intrepidly, or shed their blood

more cheerfully for the cause of Christ." He especially referred to the rescue of the Count of Artois. The Court replied that these things profited not to salvation, where the groundwork of the faith was wanting. Du Molay professed his full belief in the Trinity, and in all the articles of the Catholic faith.

William of Nogaret came forward, and inquired whether it was not written in the Chronicles of St. Denys, that Saladin had publicly declared, on a certain defeat of the Templars, that it was "a judgement of God for their apostasy from their faith, and for their unnatural crimes." Du Molay was amazed; "he had never heard this in the East." He acknowledged that he and some young Knights, eager for war, had murmured against the Grand Master, William de Beaujeu, because he kept peace with the Sultan, peace which turned out to be a wise measure. He entreated to be allowed the mass and the divine offices, to have his chapel and his chaplain. He withdrew, never to leave his prison till some years after to be burned alive.

Up to this time none but the prisoners confined in Paris had been brought before the Commission. It was still found that the citations had been but partially served in the prisons of the other provinces. Letters Prisoners from the Provinces. were again written to the Archbishops and Bishops, enjoining them to send up all the Templars who would undertake the defence of the Order to Paris. The King issued instructions to the Bailiffs and Seneschals of the realm to provide horses and conveyances, and to furnish a strong and sufficient guard. This was the special office of the Provost of Poitiers, and John de Jamville, who had the general custody of the captives in the provinces of Sens, Rheims, and Rouen. The prisons of Orleans were crowded. They

were compelled to disgorge all their inmates. The appointed day was the morrow after the Purification. From that day till the end of March the pri-^{February 2,}soners came pouring in from all parts of the^{1310.} kingdom. Great numbers had died of torture, of famine, of shame and misery at their confinement in fetid and unwholesome dungeons, men accustomed to a free and active life. The survivors came, broken in spirit by torture, not perhaps sure that the Papal Commission would maintain its unusual humanity; most of them with the burthen of extorted confessions, which they knew would rise up against them. Perhaps some selection was made. Some, no doubt, the more obstinate, and the more than obstinate, those who had recanted their confessions, were kept carefully away. Yet even under these depressing, crushing circumstances their numbers, their mutual confidence in each other, the glad open air, the face of man, before whom they were now to bear themselves proudly, and—vague hope!—some reliance on the power, the justice, or the mercy of the Pope, into whose hands they might seem to have passed from that of the remorseless King, gave them courage. They heard with undisguised murmurs of indignation the charges now publicly made against the Order, against themselves: the blood boiled as of old; the soldier nerved himself in defiance of his foe.

The first interrogatory, to which all at the time collectively before the Court^a were exposed, was whether

^a See the detail—from Clarmont 34, from Sens 5, from the Bishopric of Amiens 12, from that of Paris about 10, from Tours 7 or 8 (of the Touraine Templars, some would defend themselves, not the Order, some as far as themselves were concerned), from St. Martin des Champs in Paris 14, from Nismes 7, from Monlhery 8, from the Temple 34, from Aris in the diocese of Paris 19, from the Castle of Corbeil 38, from St. Denys 7, from Beauvais 10, from Chalons 9, from Tyers in the diocese of Sens 10

they would defend the Order. By far the larger number engaged with unhesitating intrepidity. There were some hundreds. Dreadful tales transpired of their prison-houses. Of those from St. Denys John de Baro had been three times tortured, and kept twelve weeks on bread and water. Of those from Tyers one declared that twenty-five of the Brethren had died in prison of torture and suffering: he asserted that if the Host were administered to them, God would work a miracle to show which spoke truth, those who confessed or those who denied. Of the twenty who arrived later from the province of Sens one, John of Cochiac, produced a letter from the Provost of Poitiers, addressed to Laurence de Brami, once commander in Apulia, and to other prisoners, urging them to deny to the Bishop of Orleans that they had been tampered with, and pressed to confess falsehoods: to act according to the advice of John Chiapini, "the beloved clerk;" and warning them that the Pope had ordered all who did not persevere in their confessions to be burned at once.^o The Provost, having examined the document with seeming care, said, that he did not believe that he had written such a letter, or that it was sealed with his seal: "a certain clerk sometimes kept his seal, but he had not urged the prisoners to speak anything but the truth." One of those from Toulouse had been so dreadfully tortured by fire, that some of the bones of his feet had dropped out; he produced them before the Court.

from Carcassonne 28. There came from the province of Sens 20 more; there came from Sammartine in the diocese of Maux 14; from Auxerre 4, from Craveceur 18, from Toulouse 6, from Poitiers 13, from Cressi 3,

from Moissiac 6, from Jannville (Orleans) 21, from Gisors 58, from Vernon 13, from Bourges diocese 14, from the archdiocese of Lyons 22.

^o Procès, p. 75.

These many hundred Knights, Clerks, and Servitors, a great majority at least of those before the Court, resolved, notwithstanding their former sufferings, to defend their Order. Some of their answers were striking from their emphatic boldness. "To death." "To the end." "To the peril of my soul." "I have never confessed, never will confess, those base calumnies." "Give us the sacrament on the oaths, and let God judge." "With my body and my soul." "Against all men, against all living, save the King and the Pope." "I have made some confession before the Pope, but I lied. I revoke all, and will stand to the defence of the Order." ^p Those who declined, ^a alleged different excuses, some would defend themselves, not the Order; some would not undertake the defence, unauthorised by the Grand Master; some were simple men, unversed in such proceedings; one with simplicity, which seemed like irony, "would not presume to litigate with the King and the Pope." Very few, indeed, with Gerhard de Lorinche, refused "because there were many bad points in the Order." Many entreated that they might be relieved from some of the hardships of their prisons:

^p Raynouard gives the names (p. 271), confirmed by the Procès.

^a There seems to have been less boldness and resolution among the great officers of the Order; perhaps they were old and more sorely tried. John de Tournon, the Treasurer of the Temple in Paris, refused to undertake their defence. William of Arteblay, the king's almoner, would not offer himself for that purpose. Godfrey de Gonaville, Preceptor of Ponthou and Aquitaine, said that he was a pri-

soner, a rude unlettered man: before the King and the Pope, whom he held for good lords and just judges, he would speak what was right, but not before the Commissioners. The Commissioners pledged themselves for his full security and freedom of speech.—p. 100. "Nec deberet timere de aliquibus violentis injuriis vel tormentis, quia non inferrent nec inferri permetterent, immo impedirent si inferri deberent."—p. 88. This is noteworthy.

that they might be admitted to the holy offices of the Church; some that they might resume the habit of the Order.

On the 25th of March the Knights, who had under-
Defenders
before the
Court. taken the defence, were assembled in the garden of the Archbishop's palace at Paris, to the number of five hundred and fifty-six; their names are extant in full.* The Papal commission, and the articles exhibited against the Order, which had been drawn up, to the number of one hundred and twenty-seven, by the King and his counsellors,† and which had before been read‡ and explained in French to about ninety persons, were now read again in Latin at full length. They contained, in minute legal particularity, every charge which had been adduced before. As the Notary was proceeding to translate the charges, a general outcry arose that they did not need to hear, that they would not hear, such foul, false, and unutterable things in the vulgar tongue.

The Commissioners, in order to proceed with regularity, commanded the prisoners to select from among themselves six or eight or ten proctors to conduct the defence: they promised to these proctors full freedom of speech. After some deliberation Reginald de Pruin, Preceptor of the Temple in Orleans, and Peter of Bologna, Proctor of the Order in the Roman Court, both lettered men, dictated, in the name of the Knights present, this representation: "It appeared hard to them and to the rest of the Brethren that they had been deprived of the sacraments of the Church, stripped of their religious habit, despoiled of their goods, igno-

* In the Procès; Moldenhauer has 556, Haveman says 544.

† Raynouard, whom Haveman quotes v. 248.

‡ March 14.

miniously imprisoned and put in chains. They were ill provided with all things: the bodies of those who had died in prison had been buried in unconsecrated ground: in the hour of death they had been denied the Sacrament. No one could act as a proctor without the consent of the Grand Master; they were illiterate and simple, they required therefore the aid and advice of learned Counsel. Many Knights of high character had not been permitted to undertake the defence: they named Reginald de Vossiniac and Matthew de Olichy as eminently qualified for that high function."

There was great difficulty in the choice of proctors and in their investiture with powers to act in defence of the Order. The public notaries went round the prisons in which the Templars were confined, to require their assent, if determined on the defence, to the nomination of proctors. The Knights had taken new courage from their short emancipation from their fetters, from the glimpse of the light of day. About seventy-seven in the Temple dungeons solemnly averred all the articles to be foul, irrational, detestable, horrid, false to the blackest falsehood, iniquitous, fabricated, invented by mendacious witnesses, base, infamous; that "the Temple" is and always was pure and blameless. If they were not permitted to appear in person at the General Council, they prayed that they might appear by some of their Brethren. They asserted all the confessions to be false, wrung from them by torture, or by the fear of torture, and therefore to be annulled and thrown aside; that these things were public, notorious, to be concealed by no subterfuge. Other prisoners put in other pleas of defence, as strong, some of them more convincing from their rashness and simplicity. A few bitterly complained of the miserable allowance for their main-

tenance: they had to pay two sous for knocking off their irons, when brought up for hearing, and ironing them again.^a

The mass of suffrages, though others were named, were for Peter of Bologna, Reginald de Pruin, priests; William de Chambonnet and Bertrand de Salleges, knights, as those in whom they had greatest confidence as proctors. Already on the 1st of April these four with Matthew de Clichy and Robert Vigier had given in a written paper, stating that without the approbation of the Grand Master they could not act. The Grand Master, the chief Preceptors of France, Guienne, Cyprus, and Normandy, and the other Brethren, must be withdrawn from the custody of the King's officers, and delivered to that of the Church, as it was notorious that they dared not, through fear, or through seduction and false promises, consent to the defence of the Order, and that false confessions would be adduced so long as the cause should last.^{*} They demanded everything requisite to defend the cause, especially the counsel of learned lawyers; full security for the proctors and their counsel: that the apostate Brethren, who had thrown off the habit of the Order, should be taken into the custody of the Church till it should be ascertained whether they had borne true or false witness,[†] for it was well known that they had been corrupted by solicitations and bribes; that the priests who had heard the dying confessions of the Templars should be examined as to those confessions; that the accusers should

^a Procès, passim, at this period.

^{*} "Quia scimus predictos fratres non audere consentire defensionem ordinis, propter eorum metum et seductionem, et falsas promissiones, quia

quamdiu durabit causa, durabit et confessio falsa,"—p. 127.

[†] This was probably aimed especially at Squino de Florian and his colleagues.

appear before the Court, and be liable to the *Lex Talionis*.

On the 7th of April they appeared again with William de Montreal, Matthew de Cresson Essart, John de St. Leonard, and William de Grinsac. Peter of Bologna read the final determination of the Brethren:—"They could not, without leave from the Grand Master, appoint proctors, but they were content that the four, the two priests, Peter of Bologna and De Pruin, the two Knights, De Chambonnet and Salleges, should appear for the defence, produce all documents, allege all laws, and watch the whole proceedings in their behalf. They demanded that no confession, extorted by solicitation, reward, or fear, should be adduced to their prejudice; that all the false Brethren, who had thrown off the habit of the Order, should be kept in safe custody by the Church till found true or mendacious; that no layman should be present at the hearing, no one who might cause reasonable dread;" for the Brethren were in general so downcast in mind from terror, that it is less surprising that they should tell lies than speak truth, when they compare the tribulation, anguish, insults endured by those who speak truth, with the advantages, enjoyments, freedom of those who speak falsehood.* "It is amazing that those should be believed who are thus corrupted by personal advantage rather than the martyrs of Christ, who endure the worst afflictions:" "they aver that no Knight in all the world out of the realm of France has or would utter such lies: it is manifest therefore that

*Protest of the
Proctors*

* "Quia omnes fratres generaliter huius qui mentiuntur, sed plus de his tanto terrore, et timore percussis, quod quæ sustinent veritatem."—p. 166, and non est mirandum quodam modo de in Moldenhauer.

they that do this in France are seduced by terror, influence, or bribery." ^a They assert distinctly, deliberately, without reserve, the holiness of the Order; their fidelity to their three solemn vows of chastity, obedience, poverty; their dedication to the service of Christ's Sepulchre; they avouch the utter mendacity of the articles exhibited against them. "Certain false Christians, or absolute heretics, moved by the zeal of covetousness, or the ardour of envy, have sought out some few apostates or renegades from the Order (diseased sheep cast out of the fold), and with them have invented and forged all the horrid crimes and wickednesses attributed to the Order. They have poisoned the ears of the Pope and of the King. The Pope and the King, thus misled by designing and crafty counsellors, have permitted their satellites to compel confessions by imprisonment, torture, the dread of death. Finally, they protested against the form of procedure, as directly contrary to law, an inquisition *ex officio*, because before their arrest they were not arraigned by public fame, because they are not now in a state of freedom and security, but at the mercy of those who are continually suggesting to the King that he should urge all who have confessed by words, messages, or letters not to retract their false depositions, extorted by fear; for if they retract them, they will be burned alive." ^b

William de Montreal presented another protest in Provençal French, somewhat different in terms, insisting on their undoubted privilege of being judged by the Pope and the Pope alone.

These protests had no greater effect than such pro-

^a "Quare dicta sunt in regno Francie, quia, qui dixerunt, corrupti timore auroe vel pretio testificati sunt"!!

^b P. 140.

tests usually have; they were overruled by the Commissioners, who declared themselves determined to proceed.

On April 11th, on the eve of Palm Sunday, the witnesses, how chosen is unknown, were brought forward: oaths of remarkable solemnity were Witnesses. administered in the presence of the four advocates of the Order. The depositions of the first witnesses were loose and unsatisfactory, resting on rumour and suspicion. Raoul de Prael had some years before heard Gervais, Prior of the Temple at Laon, declare that the Templars had a great and terrible secret: he would have his head cut off rather than betray it. Nicolas Domizelli, Provost of the Monastery of Fassat, had heard his uncle, who entered the Order twenty-five years before, declare that the same Gervais had used the same language concerning the secret usages of the Order. He had himself wished to enter the Order, but, though he was very rich, Gervais had raised difficulties. Some of the Court adjourned to the deathbed of John de S. Benedict, Preceptor of Isle Bochart. John underwent, though said to be at the point of death, a long interrogation. He confessed, as they reported, the denial of Christ and spitting on the Cross at his reception: of the idol, or of the other charges he knew nothing. Guiscard de Marsiac had heard of the obscene kisses. His relative, Hugh de Marchant, after he had entered the Order, had become profoundly melancholy; he called himself a lost man, had a seal stamped "Hugh the Lost." Hugh, however, had died, after confession to a Friar Minor and having received the Holy Sacrament, in devotion and peace. Then came two servitors, under the suspicious character of renegades, having cast off the dress of the Order, John de Taillefer, and John de Hinquemet, an Englishman. They deposed to the

denial of Christ, the spitting on the Cross, the denial with their lips not their hearts (as almost every one did), the spitting near not on the Cross.

The Court adjourned for the Festival of Easter, and resumed its sittings on the Thursday in Easter week. The four defenders had become still more emboldened, perhaps by the meagre and inconclusive evidence. They put in a new protest against the proceedings, as hasty, violent, sudden, iniquitous, and without the forms of law. The Brethren had been led like sheep to the slaughter; they recounted again the imprisonments, the tortures, under which many had died, many were maimed for life, by which some had been compelled to make lying confessions. Further, letters had been shown to the Brethren, with the King's seal attached, promising them, if they would bear witness against the Order, safety of life and limb, ample provision for life, and assuring them at the same time that the Order was irrevocably doomed. They demanded a list of the witnesses, so that they might adduce evidence as to their credibility; that those who had given their depositions should be separated and kept apart from those who had not, so that there might be no collusion or mutual understanding; that the depositions should be kept secret; that every witness should be informed that he might speak the truth without fear, because his deposition would not be divulged till it had been laid before the Pope. They demanded that the laymen De Plasian, De Nogaret, and others should not be present in the spiritual court to overawe the judges; they demanded that those who had the custody of the Templars should be interrogated as to the testimony given concerning the Order by the dying in their last hours.

The examinations began again. Another servitor, Huguet de Buris, who, with a fourth, had shared the dungeon of Taillefer and John the Englishman, deposed much to the same effect. Gerard de Passages gave more extraordinary evidence. Seventeen years after his reception he had abandoned the Order for five years on account of the foul acts which had taken place at his reception. After the usual rigorous oaths had been administered, a crucifix of wood was produced: he was asked whether he believed that cross to be God. He replied that it was the image of the Crucified. It was answered, "this is but a piece of wood; God is in heaven." He was commanded to spit upon and trample on the Cross. He did this, not compelled, but from his vow of obedience. He kissed his Initiator on the spine of the back. Yet Gerard de Passages, though thus a renegade to the Order, had suffered, he avers, the most horrible tortures before the King's Bailiff at Macon, weights tied to the genitals and other limbs to compel him to a confession of the idol, of which he declared that he knew nothing. Godfrey de Thatan, the fourth of the servitors, "had been forced to the denial of Christ, on his reception, by the threat of being shut up in a place where he could see neither his hands nor his feet." Raymond de Vassiniac made an admission for the first time of one of the fouler charges, but denied the actual guilt of the Order. Baldwin de St. Just, Preceptor of Ponthieu, had been twice examined, twice put to the torture, at Amiens by the Friar Preachers, at Paris before the Bishop. The sharper tortures at Amiens had compelled him to confess more than the less intolerable tortures at Paris, or than he was disposed to avow before the Commissioners. "At his own reception had taken place

Examinations resumed.

May 1.

the abnegation, the insult to the Cross, the licence to commit unnameable vices. But at the reception of four Brothers, one his own nephew, at which he had been present, nothing of the kind." The servitor James of Troyes was the most ready witness: he had left the Order four years before from love of a woman. Besides the usual admissions, he had heard, he could not say from whom, that a head was worshipped at the midnight Chapters. The Court itself mistrusted the ease, fluency, and contradictions of this witness.*

Still during all these examinations new batches of Knights were brought in, almost all of them eager to undertake the defence of the Order. As yet, considering the means unscrupulously used to obtain evidence, the evidence had been scanty, suspicious, resting chiefly on low persons of doubtful fidelity to their vows. Hope, even something like triumph, might be rising in the hearts, faintly gleaming on the countenances of the Templars. The Court itself might seem somewhat shaken: the weighty protests, unanswered and unanswerable, could hardly be without some effect. Who could tell the turn affairs might take?

But now, at this crisis, terrible rumours began to spread that the Archbishop of Sens, in defiance and in contempt of the supreme Papal tribunal, was proceeding (as Metropolitan of Paris) against all who had retracted their confessions as relapsed heretics. These were the first fruits of the Archbishop's gratitude to the King for his promotion extorted from the reluctant Pope: he had not been a month enthroned!

* "Predictus testis videbatur esse valde facilis et procer ad loquendum et in pluribus dictis suis non esse stabilis, sed quasi varians et vacillans."

Stephen, Archbishop of Sens, had died about the aster of the preceding year. The Pope declared his termination himself to nominate the Metropolitan of his important See, of which the Bishop of Paris was a suffragan. But the King requested, he demanded the see for Philip, the brother of his faithful minister, Enguerrand de Marigni, the author and adviser of all his policy. Clement struggled with some resolution, but gave way at length; he acceded un-
Philip de Marigni.

At Easter Philip de Marigni received his pall. Almost his first act was to summon a Provincial Council to sit in judgement on the
A.D. 1310.
 templars who had retracted their confessions. The rapid deliberations of this Council were known to be drawing to a close. On Sunday the four de-
Appeal to the Commissioners.
 manders demanded a special audience of the commissioners. They put in a strong protest against the acts of the Archbishop; they entreated the intervention of the Commissioners to arrest these iniquitous proceedings; they appealed to their authority, to their justice, to their mercy for their Brethren now on trial before another Court. The Archbishop of Narbonne withdrew under the pretext of hearing or celebrating mass. It was not till the evening that they obtained a cold reply. The proceedings of the Archbishop related to different matters than those before the Court: the trial of relapsed heretics. The Commissioners had no authority to inhibit the Archbishop of Sens and his Suffragans: they would, however, deliberate further on the subject."

They had no time for deliberation. The next day the Marigni's Council closed its session. The Archbishop pronounced all who had retracted
Decision of the Council.
 their confessions, and firmly adhered to their retracta-

tion, relapsed heretics. It was strange, stern logic: "You have confessed yourself to be guilty of heresy, on that confession you have received absolution. If you retract your confessions, the Church treats you not as reconciled sinners, but as relapsed heretics, and as heretics adjudges you to be burned." It was in vain urged that their heresy rested on their own confession; that confession withdrawn, there was no proof of their heresy. Those who persisted in their confession were set at liberty, declared reconciled to the Church, provided for by the King. Those who had made no confession, and refused to make one, were declared not reconciled to the Church, and ordered to be detained in prison, which might be perpetual. For the relapsed there was a darker destiny.

On May 12th fifty-four stakes, encircled with dry wood, were erected outside the Porte St. Antoine. Fifty-four Templars were led forth—men, some of noble birth, many in the full health and strength of manhood.^a The habits of their Order were rent from them; each was bound to the stake, with an executioner beside him. The herald proclaimed for the last time that those who would confess should be set at liberty. Kindred and friends thronged around weeping, beseeching, imploring them to submit to the King. Not one showed the least sign of weakness: they resolutely asserted the innocence of the Order, their own faith as Christians. The executioners slowly lit the wood, which began to scorch, to burn, to consume their extremities. The flames rose higher; and through the crackling might be heard the howlings of the dying men, their agonising prayers to Christ, to the Blessed Virgin, to

^a Raynouard (pp. 109-111) has recovered the names of most of the 54.

the Saints. Not one but died an unshrinking and resolute martyr to the guiltlessness of the Order. The people looked on in undisguised sympathy. "Their souls," says one chronicler, "incurred deeper damnation, for they misled the people into grievous error." Day after day went on the same sad spectacle. On the eve of the Ascension four were burned, among them the King's Almoner. One hundred and thirteen were burned in Paris alone, and not one apostate!

The examinations were going on, meantime, before the Papal Commission. The day when it was well known that the Archbishop was about to condemn the recreants to the flames, Humphry de Puy, a servitor, gave the most intrepid denial to the whole of the charges: he had been three times tortured, kept in a dungeon on bread and water for twenty-six weeks. He described his own reception as solemn, secret, and austere. He had heard rumours of such things as were said to have taken place; he did not believe one word of them. Throughout, his denial was plain, firm, unshaken. John Bertaldi was under examination when the tidings of the burnings at the Porte St. Antoine were made known. The Commissioners sent a tardy and feeble petition at least for delay, and to inform the Archbishop and the King's officers that the Templars had entered an appeal to the Council of Vienne. This was all!

The next day Aymeric de Villars le Duc appeared before the Commissioners, pale, bewildered; yet on his oath, and at peril of his soul, he imprecated upon himself, if he lied, instant death, and that he might be

* Chroniques de St. Denys. The best account is in Villani, viii. xell, Zantfleet Chronicon, apud Martene, v p. 159.

plunged body and soul, in sight of the Court, into hell. He smote his breast, lifted his hands in solemn appeal to the altar, knelt down, and averred all the crimes imputed to the Order utterly false: though he had been tortured by G. de Marillac and Hugo de Celle, the King's officers, to partial confession. He had seen the waggons in which the fifty-four had been led to be burned, he had heard that they had been burned. He doubted whether, if he should be burned, he would not through fear confess anything, and confess it on his oath, even if he were asked if he had slain the Lord. He entreated the Commissioners, he even entreated the notaries not to betray his secret lest he should be condemned to the same fate as his Brethren.

The Commissioners found the witnesses utterly paralysed with dread, and only earnest that their confessions or retractations of their confessions might not be revealed; above forty abandoned the defence in despair. So, after some unmeaning communications with the Archbishop of Sens, they determined to adjourn the Court for some months, till November 3rd.

In the mean time other Metropolitans and Bishops followed the summary and barbarous proceedings of Philip Marigni of Sens.^f The Archbishop of Rheims held a Council at Senlis; nine Templars were burned: the Archbishop of Rouen at Pont de l'Arche; the number of victims is not known, but they were many.^g The Bishop of Carcassonne held his Council: John Cassantras, Commander in Carcassonne, with many others perished in the fire.^h Duke Thiebault of Lor-

^f Continuator Nangis.—Vit. Clement. VI. Rouen, quoted by Raynouard, p. 120.

^h Hist. Eccles. de Carcassonne.—

^g Histoire des Archevêques de Ibid.

raigne, who had seized the goods of the Templars, ordered great numbers to execution. None retracted their retraction of their confession.¹

On November 3rd the Commission resumed its sittings, but most of the Commissioners were weary or disgusted with their work. Three only were present. The Archbishop of Narbonne and the Bishop of Bayeux were elsewhere employed, it was alleged on the King's business. The Archdeacon of Maguelonne wrote from Montpellier to excuse himself on account of illness. The Bishop of Limoges withdrew: a letter to the King had been seen, disapproving the reopening of the Commission till the meeting of a Parliament summoned for the day of St. Vincent.^k They adjourned to the 17th of December.^m The Commission was then more full; the Archbishop of Narbonne and four others took their seats. Of the four proctors, the Knights William de Chambonnet and Bernard de Salleges alone appeared. Peter of Bologna and Reginald de Pruin, it was asserted, had renounced the defence. Peter de Bologna was heard of no more; he was reported to have broken prison. Reginald de Pruin, as having been degraded by the Archbishop, was deemed disqualified to act for the Order. Thus was the defence crippled. In vain the Knights, unlettered men, demanded counsel to assist them: they too abandoned the desperate office. The Court, released from their importunate presence, could proceed with greater despatch. Lest any new

¹ "Unum autem mirandum fuit, quod omnes et singuli sigillatim confessiones suas quas prius fecerant in iudicio, et jurati confessi fuerant dicere veritatem, penitus retractaverunt, dicentes se false dixisse prius et se fuisse

mentitos, nullam super hâc reddentes causam nisi vim vel metum tormentorum quod de se talia faterentur."—iv. Vit. Clement. p. 72.

^k Jan. 22.

^m By an error in the Document, Oct. 17.

hindrance should occur, at the suggestion of the Archbishop of Narbonne it was determined that the Commissioners might sit by deputy.

The Court sat from the 17th of December to the 26th of May. Not less, on the whole, than two hundred and thirty-one witnesses were heard. It cannot now be wondered if the confessions were more in accordance with the views of the King. The most intrepid of the Knights had died at the stake; every one who retracted his confession must make up his mind to be burned. On the other hand, the Order seemed irretrievably doomed: while confession might secure themselves, the most stubborn assertor of the blamelessness of the Order could not avert its dissolution. A few appeared in the habit of the Order, with the long beard: most had either thrown it off, or it had been taken from them, they appeared shaven. This was the case with all who had been absolved by the Church.

The confessions, upon strict examination, manifestly betray this predominant feeling of terror and despair. Some there were who nobly, obstinately denied the whole. Those who confessed, confessed as little as they could, enough to condemn the Order, yet not to inculpate, or to inculpate as little as possible, themselves. The confessions are constantly clashing and contradictory.^a Men present at certain receptions assert things to have taken place, which others, also present, explicitly deny. The general conclusion was this. Many dwelt on the difficulties which were raised against their admission to the Order. They were admonished that they

^a Raynouard has, with much ingenuity and truth, brought together the direct contradictions.—p. 157 *et seqq.*

must not expect to ride about in splendid attire on stately horses, and to live easy and luxurious lives; they had to submit to austere discipline, stern self-denial, almost intolerable privations and hardships. When they would wish to be beyond the sea, they would be thwarted in their wishes; when they would sleep, they would be forced to watch; when to eat, to fast. They were asked if they believed the Catholic faith of the Church of Rome; if they were in Holy Orders, married, under the vows of any other Brotherhood: whether they had given bribe or promise to any Knight Templar to obtain admission into the Order. "Ye ask a great thing," replied the Knight who admitted them to their request.

The first and public act of reception,^o all agreed, was most severe, solemn, impressive. The three Result of
Confessions. great vows of obedience, chastity, abandonment of property, were administered with awful gravity. Then it was, according to the confession of most who confessed anything, that, after they had been clothed in the dress of the Order, they were led aside into some private chamber or chapel, and compelled, either in virtue of their vow of obedience, or in dread of some mysterious punishment, to deny Christ, to spit on the Cross. Yet, perhaps without exception, all swore that they had denied with their lips, not with their heart; that they spat, beside, above, below, not on the Cross.^p All declared that never after had any attempt been made to confirm them in apostasy from Christ:^q all

^o See the most full account of the reception by Gerard de Causse, p. 179 *et seqq.*

^p "Juxta non super."

^q Albert de Canellis, preceptor in

Sicily, and doorkeeper of Pope Benedict XI., was told, when he denied Christ, "that the Crucified was a false prophet; and that he must not believe or have hope or trust in him."—p. 425.

declared that they fully believed the whole creed of the Church; almost all that they believed all their Brethren to have perfect faith in Christ. There were some singular variations and explanations of the denial. One believed it to be a mere test of their absolute obedience; another a probation, as to whether they were of sufficient resolution to be sent to the Holy Land, where, in the power of the Mohammedans, they might be compelled to choose between death and the abnegation of their Redeemer;* some that it was a mysterious allusion to the denial of S. Peter; some that it was an idle jest;† some that it was treated lightly, "Go, fool, and confess." Many had confessed the crime, most usually to Minorite Friars, and, though their confession shocked the priest, they received, after some penance, full absolution. Most of those who acknowledged the abnegation of Christ, admitted the obscene kiss: some that it was but a brotherly kiss on the mouth; some had received, some had been compelled to bestow this sign of obedience: it was sometimes on the navel, sometimes between the shoulders, sometimes at the bottom of the spine, sometimes, very rarely, lower: it was sometimes on the naked person, more often through the clothes. Here stopped the admissions of great numbers; this they thought would suffice; the whole of the rest they denied. Others went further: some admitted the permission to

* One had confessed it to a Friar Minor, "et dixit ei dictus frater quod ipse in articulo mortis et aliter audiverat confessiones multorum fratrum dicti ordinis, et nunquam intellexit prædicta, sed credebat quod hoc facissent, ad temptandum, si contingeret eum capi ultra mare a Saracenis, an abnegaret Deum."—p. 405. Another

Friar-Precacher took the same view of the denial, and added, "Quia, si non negasset, forsitan citius misissent eum ultra mare."—p. 525. Peter de Charrat said that after his abnegation, "Dictus Dolo incepit subridere, quasi dispiciendo ipsum testem."

† Truffas. It was done "truffatoria."

commit unnatural crimes, though in the charge on reception the sin was declared to be relentlessly punished by perpetual imprisonment; but all swore vehemently that they had never committed such crimes; had never been tempted or solicited to commit them; offences of this kind were very rare, and punished by expulsion from the Order. Some said that they were told it was better to sin so than with women to deter from that sin: some took it merely as an injunction hospitably to share their bed with a Brother: they wore their dress night and day, with a cord which bound it close.^t

Of the idol but few had heard; still fewer seen it. It was a cat; it was a human head with two faces; it was of stone or metal, with features The Idol. which might be discerned, or was utterly shapeless; it was the head of one of the eleven thousand virgins: "no one idol could be produced, though every mansion of the Templars, and all their most secret treasures, were in the hands of their enemies, had been seized without warning or time for concealment, and searched with the most deliberate scrutiny. In the midst of the examinations came, in a Latin writing from Vercelli, from Antonio Siri, a notary, this wild story, followed by another not less extravagant. A renegade in Sicily had divulged the secret. A Lord of Sidon had loved a beautiful woman: he had never enjoyed her before her death. After her death he disinterred and abused her body. The fruit of this unholy and loathsome connexion was

^t Theobald of Tavernay added to his indignant denial of those crimes, "We had always money enough to purchase the favours of the most beautiful women,"—p. 325.

^u William de Arreblay, the king's

almoner, before his apprehension, had believed it to be the head of one of those Virgins; since, from what he had heard in prison, suspected it was an idol, for it seemed to have two faces, was terrible to see, and had a silver beard |—p. 502.

a head; and this head, a talisman of good fortune, was the idol of the Templars.*

Most of the interrogated seemed to think that they had satisfied all demands when they had made admissions on the first few questions: to the rest they gave a general denial, or pleaded total ignorance. There were some vague answers about secret midnight chapters, of absolution spoken by the Grand Master, but rarely, except in the absence of a priest, or it was conditional, and to be confirmed by a priest: very few knew anything of the omission of the words at the consecration of the host. But throughout they are the confessions of men under terror, some in an agony of dread, others from the remembrance or the fear of torture, or of worse than torture. John de Pollencourt at first protested again and again that he would adhere to his confession made before the Bishop of Amiens that he had denied Christ. The Commissioners saw that he was pale and shivering; they exhorted him to speak the truth, for neither they nor the notaries would betray his secret. He then solemnly denied the whole and every particular; averred that he had made his confession before the Inquisitors from fear of death; that Giles de Boutongi, one of the former witnesses, had urged on him and many others in the prison of Montreuil that they would lose their lives if they did not assist in the dissolution of the Order by confessing the abnegation of Christ and the spitting on the cross.⁷ Three days after, the same John de Pollencourt entreats another hearing, not only retracts his retraction, but adds to his former confession, acknowledging the licence to commit nameless sins, but denies the worship of the idol-cat. John

de Cormeli, Preceptor of Moissiac, at first seems to assert the perfect sanctity of the initiation. Being pressed as to anything unseemly having taken place, he hesitates, entreats to speak with the Commissioners in private. The Commissioners decline this, but, seeing him bewildered with the terror of torture (he had lost four teeth by torture at Paris), allow him to retire and deliberate. Some days after he appears again with a full confession.^a John de Rumpfey had confessed because he had been three times tortured. Robert Vigier denied all the charges; he had confessed on account of the violence of the tortures inflicted on him at Paris by the Bishop of Nevers:^a three of his brethren had died under the torture. Stephen de Domant was utterly bewildered; he confessed to the denial and the spitting on the cross. "Would he maintain this in the face of the Knight who had received him, and so give him the lie?" He would not.^b The Court saw that he was shattered by the tortures undergone two years before under the Bishop of Paris.

All these depositions, signed, sealed, attested, authenticated, were transmitted to the Pope.^c

^a P. 506. ^a P. 514. ^b P. 557.

^c M. Michelet writes thus in the Preface to the second volume of the *Procès des Templiers*, which, it must be admitted, contains on the whole a startling mass of confessions: "Il suffit de remarquer, que dans les interrogatoires que nous publions, les dénégations sont presque *toutes identiques*, comme si elles étaient dictées d'un formulaire convenu, qu'au contraire les aveux sont *tous différens*, variés de circonstances spéciales, souvent très naïves, qui leur donnent un

caractère particulier de vérité. Le contraire doit avoir lieu, si les aveux avaient été dictés ou arrachés par les tortures; ils seraient à peu près semblables, et la diversité se trouverait plutôt dans les dénégations." I confess that my impression of the fact is different, though I am unwilling to set my opinion on this point against that of the Editor of the *Proceedings*. But the fact itself, if true, strikes me just in the contrary way. The denegations were simple denials; the avowals, those of persons who had

It was not in France alone that the Templars were arrested, interrogated, in some kingdoms, and by the Pope's order, submitted to torture. In England, Edward II., after the example of his father-in-law, and in obedience to the Pope's repeated injunctions, and to his peremptory Bull, had seized with the same despatch, and cast into different prisons, all the Templars in England, Wales, and Ireland; Scotland had done the same. The English Templars were under custody in London, Lincoln, and York. From Lincoln, before the interrogatory, great part, but not all, were transferred to the Tower of London, to the care of John Cromwell, the Constable.^d The first proceeding was before Ralph Baldock, Bishop of London. On the 21st of October he opened the inquest on forty Knights, including the Grand Master, William de la More, in the chapter-house of the monastery of the Holy Trinity, in the presence of the Papal Commissioners, Deodate, Abbot of Lagny, and Sicard de St. Vaur, Canon of Narbonne, Auditor of the Pope.^e The questions were at first far more simple, far less elaborately drawn out than those urged in France.^f The chief points were

suffered or feared torture or death, who were bewildered, desperate of saving the Order, and spoke therefore whatever might please or propitiate the judges. Truth is usually plain, simple; falsehood, desultory, circumstantial, contradictory. In their confessions they were wildly bidding for their lives. Whatever you wish us to say, we will say it; a few words more or less matter not; or a few more assenting answers to questions which suggested those answers 25 examined at Elne in Roussillon had not

been tortured; they denied calmly, consistently, the whole.—Tom. ii. p. 421.

^d "Ut commodius et efficacius procedi potest ad inquisitionem."—Rymer, 1309.

^e Wilkins, *Concilia Magna. Britann.* ii. p. 334.

^f Concil. Magn. Britann. ii. 347. I shall be excused for giving the English examinations somewhat more at length. The trials were here at least *more fair*.

these:^a—Whether the chapters and the reception of knights were held in secret and by night; whether in those chapters were committed any offences against Christian morals or the faith of the Church; whether they knew that any individual brother had denied the Redeemer and worshipped idols; whether they themselves held heretical opinions on any of the sacraments. The examination was conducted with grave dignity. The warders of the prisons were commanded to keep the witnesses separate, under pain of the greater excommunication: to allow them no intercourse, to permit no one to have access to them. The first four witnesses, William Raven, Hugh of Tadcaster, Thomas Chamberleyn, Ralph of Barton, were interrogated according to the simpler formulary. They described each his reception, by whom, in whose presence it took place; denied calmly, distinctly, specifically, every one of the charges; declared that they believed them to be false, and had not the least suspicion of their truth. Ralph of Barton was a priest; he was recalled, and then first examined, under a more rigid form of oath, on each of the eighty-seven articles used in France, and sanctioned by the Pope. His answer was a plain positive denial in succession of every criminal charge. Forty-seven witnesses deposed fully to the same effect.^b From all these knights had been obtained not one syllable of confession.^c It was

^a The charges were read to them in Latin, French, and English.

^b Thomas de Ludham, the thirty-first witness, said that he had been often urged to leave the Order; but had constantly refused, though he had quite enough to live upon had he done so.

^c The forty-fourth, John of Stoke, Chaplain of the Order, was questioned as to the death of William Bachelor, a knight. It appears that Bachelor had been in the prison of the Templars eight weeks, had died, had been buried, not in the cemetery, but in the public way

determined to admit the testimony of witnesses not of the Order. Seventeen were examined, clergy, Nov. 20. public notaries, and others. Most of them knew nothing against the Templars; the utmost was a vague suspicion arising out of the secrecy with which they held their chapters. One man alone deposed to an overt act of guilt against a knight, Guy de Forest, who had been his enemy.

From January 29th to February 4th were hearings before the Bishops of London and Chichester, the Papal Commissioners, and some others, in St. Martin's Ludgate, and in other churches, on twenty-nine new articles. I. Whether they knew anything of the infidel and foul crimes charged in the Papal Bull. II. Whether the knights deposed under awe of the Great Preceptor or of the Order. III. Whether the form of reception was the same throughout the world, &c. Thirty-four witnesses, some before examined, persisted in the same absolute denial. On the 8th of June the Inquest dwelt solely on the absolution pronounced by the Grand Preceptor. William de la More deposed that when an offender was brought up before the chapter he was stripped of the dress of the Order, his back exposed, and the President struck three blows with scourges. He then said, "Brother, pray to God to remit thy sins." He turned to those present, "Brethren, pray to God that he remit our brother's sin, and repeat your Pater Noster." He swore that he had never used the form, "I absolve thee, in the name of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost." This was the case with all offences, save

within the Temple, and not in the dress of the Order. He had died excommunicated by the rules of the	Order. It was intimated that Bachelor's offence was appropriating some of the goods of the Order.
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those which could not be confessed without indecency. These he remitted as far as he might by the powers granted to him by God and the Pope.^k This was the universal practice of the Order. All the witnesses confirmed the testimony of William de la More. Interrogatories were also made at different times at June 1, 1310, Lincoln under the Papal Commission, and April 28, before the Archbishop at York with the two Papal Commissioners.^m All examined denied the whole as firmly and unanimously as at London.

The conclusions to which the chief Court arrived, after these Inquisitions, were in part a full and absolute acquittal of the Order; in part were based on a distorted and unjust view of the evidence; in part on evidence almost acknowledged to be unsatisfactory. The form of reception was declared to be the same throughout the world; of the criminality of that form, or of any of its particular usages, not one word. Certain articles were alleged to be proved: the absolution pronounced by the Grand Preceptor, and by certain lay knights in high office, and by the chapters; also that the reception was by night and secret; that they were sworn not to reveal the secret of their reception (proved by seven witnesses), were liable to be punished for such revelation (by three witnesses); that it was not lawful among themselves to discuss this secret (by three witnesses); that they were sworn to increase the wealth of the Order, by right or wrong;ⁿ by four witnesses that they were forbidden to confess except to priests of their own Order.^o

^k "Sed alla peccata, que non audent confiteri propter erubescenciam carnis vel timorem justitiæ ordinis, ipse ex potestate sibi concessâ a Deo et domino Papâ, remittit ei in quantum potest."—p. 357.

^m Thos. Stubbs, Act. Pontif. Eborac. apud Twysden, p. 1730; also Hemmingford.

ⁿ "Per fas vel per nefas."

^o Concil. p. 548.

The testimony of certain hostile witnesses was all this time kept separate; it was admitted that at the utmost even this was but presumptive against the Order. The Court seemed to have been ashamed of it, as well they might. In one place there is a strong intimation that the witnesses had contradicted and forsworn themselves.^p To what did it amount, and what manner of men were the witnesses?

An Irish Brother, Henry Tanet, had *heard*, that in the East one knight had apostatised to Islam: he had *heard* that the Preceptor of Mount Pelerin in Syria had received knights with the denial of Christ; the names of the knights he knew not. Certain knights of Cyprus (unnamed) were not sound in faith. A certain Templar had a brazen head which answered all questions. He never heard that any knight worshipped an idol, except an apostate to Mohammedanism! and the aforesaid Preceptor.

John of Nassingham had heard from others, who said that they had been told, that at a great banquet given by the Preceptor at York many brothers met in solemn festival to worship a calf.

John de Eure, knight (not of the Order), had invited William de la Fenne, Preceptor of Wesdall, to dinner. De la Fenne, after dinner, had produced a book, and given it to his wife to read, which book denied the virgin birth of the Saviour, and the Redemption: "Christ was crucified, not for man's sins, but for his own." De la Fenne had confessed this before the Inquest. Himself, being a layman, could not know the contents of the book.

^p "Suspicio (quæ loco testis 21 in MS. allegatur) probare videtur, quod omnes examinati in aliquo deiecerunt, ut ex inspectione processuum apparet."

William de la Forde, Rector of Crofton, had heard from an Augustinian monk, now dead, that he had heard the confession of Patrick Rippon, of the Order, also dead, a confession of all the crimes charged against the Order. He had heard all this after the apprehension of the Templars at York.

Robert of Oteringham, a Franciscan, had heard a chaplain of the Order say to his brethren, "The devil will burn you," or some such words. He had seen a Templar with his face to the West, his hinder parts towards the altar. Twenty years before, at Wetherby, he had looked through a hole in the wall of a chapel where the Preceptor was said to be busy arranging the reliques brought from the Holy Land; he saw a very bright light. Next day he asked a Templar what Saint they worshipped; the Templar turned pale, and entreated him, as he valued his life, to speak no more of the matter.

John Wederal sent in a schedule, in which he testified in writing that he heard a Templar, one Robert Bayser, as he walked along a meadow, say, "Alas! alas! that ever I was born! I must deny Christ and hold to the devil!"

N. de Chinon, a Franciscan, had heard that a certain Templar had a son who looked through a wall and saw the knights compelling a professing knight to deny Christ; on his refusal they killed him. The boy was asked by his father whether he would be a Templar; the boy refused, saying what he had seen: on which his father killed him also.

Ferins Mareschal deposed that his grandfather entered the Order in full health and vigour, delighting in his hawks and hounds; in three days he was dead: the witness suspected that he would not consent to the wickednesses practised by the Order.

Adam de Heton deposed that when he was a boy it was a common cry among boys, "Beware of the kisses of the Templars."

William de Berney, an Augustinian, had heard that a certain Templar, he did not know his name, but believed that he was the Preceptor of Duxworthe (near Cambridge), had said that man after death had no more a living soul than a dog.

Roger, Rector of Godmersham, deposed that fifteen years before he had desired to enter the Order. Stephen Quenteril had warned him, "If you were my father, and might become Grand Master of the Order, I would not have you enter it. We have three vows, known only to God, the devil, and the brethren." What those vows were Stephen would not reveal.

William, Vicar of St. Clement in Sandwich, had heard fifteen years before, from a groom in his service, that the said groom had heard from another servant, that the said servant at Dinelee had hid himself under a seat in the great hall where the Templars held their midnight chapters. The President preached to the brethren how they might get richer. All the brethren deposited their girdles in a certain place: one of these girdles the servant found and carried to his master. The master struck him with his sword in the presence of the said groom. William was asked if the groom was living: he did not know.

Thomas Tulyet had heard from the Vicar of Sutton that he had heard a certain priest, who officiated among the Templars, had been inhibited from using the words of consecration in the mass.

John de Gertia, a Frenchman, had heard fourteen years before from a woman named Cacocaca, who lived near some elms in a street in a suburb of London, lead-

ing to St. Giles, that Exvalet, Preceptor of London, had told this woman that a servant of certain Templars had concealed himself in their chapter-house at Dinelee.* The Knights present had retired to a house adjacent (how the witness saw them, appears not); there they opened a coffer, produced a black idol with shining eyes, performing certain disgusting ceremonies. One of them refused to do more (the conversation is given word for word), they threw him into a well, and then proceeded to commit all kinds of abominable excesses. He said that one Walter Savage, who belonged to Earl Warrenne, had entered the Order, and after two years disappeared. Agnes Lovekote deposed to the same.

Brother John Wolby de Bust had heard from Brother John of Dingeston that he believed that the charges against the Templars were not without foundation; that he had heard say that the Court of Rome was not dealing in a straightforward manner, and wished to save the Grand Master. The said Brother averred that he knew the place in London where a gilded head was kept. There were two more in England, he knew not where.

Richard de Kocfield had heard from John of Barne that William Bachelor† had said that he had lost his soul by entering into the Order; that there was one article in their profession which might not be revealed.

Gaspar (or Godfrey) de Nafferton, chaplain of Ryde, was in the service of the Templars, at the admission of William de Pocklington. The morning after his admission William looked very sad. A certain Brother Roger had promised Godfrey for two shillings to obtain his

* See above.

† The knight whose mysterious disappearance had been noticed before.

admission to see the ceremony. Roger broke his word, and, being reproached by Godfrey, said "he would not have done it for his tabard full of money." "If I had known that," said Godfrey, "I would have seen it through a hole in the wall." "You would inevitably have been put to death, or forced to take the habit of the Order." He also deposed to having seen a Brother copying the secret statutes.

John of Donyngton, a Franciscan, had conversed with a certain veteran who had left the Order. At the Court of Rome he had confessed to the great Penitentiary why he left the Order; that there were four principal idols in England; that William de la More, new Grand Preceptor, had introduced all these into England. De la More had a great roll in which were inscribed all these wicked observances. The same John of Donyngton had heard dark sayings from others, intimating that there were profound and terrible secrets in the Order.^a

Such was the mass of strange, loose, hearsay, antiquated evidence,^b much of which had passed through many mouths. This was all which as yet appeared against an Order, arrested and imprisoned by the King, acting under the Pope's Bull, an Order odious from jealousy of its wealth and power, and from its arrogance

^a Willeke asserts that Bishop Munter had discovered at Rome the Report of the Confessions of the English Templars, which was transmitted to the Pope. It is more full, he says, than that in the Concilia. I cannot see that Willeke produces much new matter from this report. His summary is very inaccurate, leaving out everything which throws suspicion on almost every testimony.

^b Two Confessions made in France

were put in, in which Robert de St. Just and Godfrey de Gonaville had deposed to their reception in England, with all the more appalling and loathsome ceremonies. These confessions do not appear in the *Procès* (by Michelet). Their names occur more than once. Gonaville was chosen by some as a defender of the Order. He was present at many of the receptions, sworn to by the witnesses.

to the clergy and to the monastic communities; especially to the clergy as claiming exemption from their jurisdiction, and assuming some of their powers: an Order which possessed estates in every county (the instructions of the King to the sheriffs of the counties imply that they had property everywhere), at all events vast estates, of which there are ample descriptions. Against the Order torture was, if not generally and commonly applied, authorised at least by the distinct injunctions of the King and of the Pope.^a

At length, towards the end of May, three witnesses were found, men who had fled, and had been excommunicated as contumacious on account ^{Three witnesses} of their disobedience to the citation of the Court, men apparently of doubtful character. Stephen Staplebridge is described as a runaway apostate.^x He had been apprehended by the King's officers at Salisbury, committed to Newgate, and thence brought up for examination before the Bishops of London and Chichester. Stephen,

^a Was the torture employed against the Templars in England? It is asserted by Raynouard, p. 132. Haveman (p. 305) quotes these instructions, as in Dugdale (they are in the Concilia, II. p. 314), "Et si per hujusmodi arctationes et separationes nihil aliud quam prius vellent confiteri, quod ex hinc quæstionarentur, ita quod quæstiones illæ fiant absque mutilatione et debilitatione alicujus membri et sine violentâ sanguinis effusione." See also in Rymar, III. p. 228, the royal order to those who had the Templars in custody, "Quod iidem Prælati et Inquisitores de ipsis Templariis et eorum comparibus, in QUÆSTIONIBUS et aliis ad hoc convenienti-

bus ordinant et faciunt, quotiens voluerint, id quod eis, secundum Legem Ecclesiasticam, videbitur faciendum." Orders to the Mayor and Sheriffs of London, "Et corpora dictorum Templariorum in QUÆSTIONIBUS et ad hoc convenientibus ponere."—p. 232. Still there is not the heart-breaking evidence or bitter complaint of its actual application, as in France. The Pope gave positive orders to employ torture in Spain. "Ad habendam ab eis veritatis plenitudinem promptioris tormentis et quæstionibus, si sponte confiteri noluerint, experiri procuratis."—Raynald. A.D. 1311, c. 54.

^x "Apostata fugitivus."

being sworn, declared that there were two forms of reception, one good and lawful, one contrary to the faith: at his admission at Dinelee by Brian le Jay, late Grand Preceptor of England, he had been compelled to deny Christ, which he did with his lips, not his heart; to spit on the Cross—this he escaped by spitting on his own hands. Brian le Jay had afterwards intimated to him that Christ was not very God and very Man. He also averred that those who refused to deny Christ were made away with beyond sea: that William Bachelor had died in prison and in torment, but not for that cause. He made other important admissions: after his confession he threw himself on the ground, with tears, groans, and shrieks, imploring mercy.^y

Thomas Thoroldeby (called Tocci) was said to have been present at the reception of Staplebridge.^z On this point he somewhat prevaricated: all the rest he resolutely denied except that there was a suspicion against the Order on account of their secret chapter. He was asked why he had fled.^a "The Abbot of Lagny had threatened him that he would force him to confess before he was out of their hands." Thoroldeby had been present when the confessions were made before the Pope; he had seen, therefore, the treatment of his Brethren in France. Four days after Thoroldeby was brought up again: what had taken place in the interval may be conjectured;^b he now made the most full and

^y This sounds as if he had been tortured, or feared to be.

^z They were examined first at St. Martin's in the Vintry; Thoroldeby, the second time, in St. Mary Overy, Southwark.

^a Walter Clifton, examined in Scotland, was asked whether any of the

victims had fled, "*propter scandalum*," "*ob timorem hujusmodi*,"—he named Thomas Tocci as one who had fled.—p. 384.

^b Hayman says, "*unstreitig gefoltert*." It looks most suspicious.—p. 315.

ample confession. He had been received fourteen or fifteen years before by Guy Forest. Adam Champmesle and three others had stood over him with drawn swords, and compelled him to deny Christ. Guy taught him to believe only in the Great God. He had heard Brian le Jay say a hundred times that Christ was not very God and very Man. Brian le Jay had said to him that the least hair in a Saracen's beard was worth more than his whole body.^c He told many other irreverent sayings of Le Jay: there seems to have been much ill-blood between them. He related some adventures in the Holy Land, from which he would imply treachery in the Order to the Christian cause. After his admission into the Order, John de Man had said to him, "Are you a Brother of the Order? If so, were you seated in the belfry of St. Paul's, you would not see more misery than will happen to you before you die."

John de Stoke, Chaplain of the Order, deposed to having been compelled to deny Christ.^d

On June 27th these three witnesses, Staplebridge, Thoroldeby, and Stoke, received public absolution, on the performance of certain penances, from Robert Winchelsea, Archbishop of Canterbury, and some of his suffragans. Many other Knights were in like manner absolved on their humble confession that they had been under evil report,^e and under suspicion of heresy. It

^c "Quod minimus pilus barbe unus Saraceni, fuit majoris valoris quam totum corpus istius qui loquitur."—p 388.

^d These are the only three witnesses against the Order who belonged to it, according to the Concilia. Wilcke asserts that in the Vatican Acts, seen by Bishop Munter, there were 17 witnesses to the denial of Christ, 16 to

the spitting on the Cross, 8 on disrespect to the Sacraments, 2 on the omission of the words of consecration. But he does not say whether these witnesses were of the Order, and his whole representation of the Confessions from the Concilia is that of a man who has made up his mind.—Wilcke, i. p. 328. ^e "Diffamati"

was hoped that the Great Preceptor of England, William de la More, would make his submission, and accept absolution on the same easy terms. But the high spirit of De la More revolted at the humiliation. To their earnest exhortation that he would own at least the usurpation of the power of absolution, and seek pardon of the Church, he replied that he had never been guilty of the imputed heresies, and would not abjure crimes which he had never committed. He was remanded to the prison. The general sentence against the English Templars was perpetual imprisonment in monasteries.^f They seem to have been followed by general respect.

In Scotland the Inquisition was conducted by the Scotland.
Dec. 13,
1309. Bishop of St. Andrew's and John de Solarco, one of the Pope's clerks. The interrogatories of only two Knights appear: but many monks and clergy were examined, who seem to have been extremely jealous of what they branded as the lawless avarice and boundless wealth of the Templars.^g

In Ireland thirty Brothers of the Order were interrogated in the church of St. Patrick; one only, Ireland a chaplain, admitted even suspicions against the Order. Other witnesses were then examined, chiefly Franciscans, who in Ireland seem to have been actuated by a bitter hatred of the Templars. All of them swore that they suspected and believed the guilt of the Order, but no one deposed to any fact, except

^f "Quod singuli in singulis monasteriis possessionatis detruderentur, pro perpetua penitentia peragenda, qui postea in hujusmodi monasteriis bene per omnia se gerebant."—Thos. Walsingham.

^g A monk of Newbottle complains of their "conquestus injustos. Indifferenter sibi appropriare cupiunt, per fas et nefas, bona et prædia suorum vicinorum." Compare Addison, p. 486,

that in the celebration of the Mass certain Templars would not look up, but kept their eyes fixed on the ground. Some two or three discharged servants told all sorts of rumours against the Order, "that refractory Brethren were sewed up in sacks and cast into the sea." It was often said that whenever a Chapter was held, one of the number was always missing. Everything that the Grand Master ordered was obeyed throughout the world.^a

In Italy, wherever the influence of France and the authority of the Pope strongly predominated, confessions were obtained. In Naples, Charles ^{Italy.} of Anjou, Philip's cousin, had already arrested the whole Order, as in his dominions in Provence, Forcalquier, and Piedmont.ⁱ The house of Anjou had to wreak their long-boarded vengeance on the Templars for the aid they had afforded to the Arragonese, Frederick of Sicily. The servitor Frank Ranyaris described an idol kept in a coffer, and shown to him by the Preceptor of Bari. Andrew, a servitor, had been compelled to deny Christ, and to other enormities; had seen an idol with three heads, which was worshipped as their God and their Redeemer: he it was who bestowed on them their boundless wealth. The Archbishop of Brindisi heard from two confessions of the denial of Christ. Six were heard in Arragonese Sicily, who made some admissions. Thirty-two in Messina resolutely denied all.^k

^a The report is in Wilkins, Conclavia.

ⁱ The proceedings in Beaucaire, Alais, and Nismes, are, according to Wilcke, in the Vatican (see above). At Lucerne (?), a brother admitted in Spain boldly averred that the Pope

himself had avowed his belief that Jesus was not God, that he suffered not for the redemption of man, but from hatred of the Jews.—Wilcke, from MS., p. 337.

^k Wilcke, Haveman (?).

In the Papal States the examinations lasted from December, 1309, to July, 1310, at Viterbo, before the Bishop of Sutri. The worship of idols was acknowledged by several witnesses.^m At Florence, and before a Provincial Council held by the Archbishop of Pisa and the Bishop of Florence, some Knights admitted the guilt of the Order. But Reginald, Archbishop of Ravenna, had a commission of inquiry over Lombardy, the March of Ancona, Tuscany, and Dalmatia. At Ravenna the Dominicans proposed to apply torture: the majority of the Council rejected the proposition. Seven Templarsⁿ maintained the innocence of the Order; they were absolved; and in the Council the Churchmen declared that those who retracted confessions made under torture were to be held guiltless.^o The Archbishop of Ravenna and the Bishop of Rimini held an inquest at Cesena. Andrew of Sienna declared that he had heard that many Brothers had confessed from fear of torture. He knew nothing, had heard nothing of such things; had he known them, he would have left the Order, and denounced it to the Bishops and Inquisitors. "I had rather have been a beggar for my bread than remained with such men. I had rather died, for above all things is to be preferred the salvation of the soul." From Lombardy there are no reports.^p In the island of Cyprus an inquest was held:^q one hundred and ten

^m The particulars in Raynour, p. 271.

ⁿ The names in Raynour, p. 277.

^o "Communi sententiâ decretum est innocentes absolvi. . . . Intelligi innocentes debere qui, metu tormentorum, confessi fuissent, si deinde eam confessionem revocassent; aut revocare, hujusmodi tormentorum metu,

ne inferrentur nova, non fuissent ausi, dum tamen id constaret."—Haradin, Concil. 7, p. 1317. All this implies the general use of torture in Italy.

^p There were one or two unimportant inquiries at Bologna, Faenza, &c.—Raynour.

^q May and June, 1311.

witnesses were heard, seventy-five of the Order. They had at one time taken up arms to defend themselves, but laid them down in obedience to the law. All maintained the blamelessness of the Order with courage and dignity.

In Spain the acquittal of the Order in each of the kingdoms was solemn, general, complete.* In Arragon, on the first alarm of an arrest of the Order, the Knights took to their mountain-fortresses, manned them, and seemed determined to stand on their defence. They soon submitted to the King and the laws. The Grand Inquisitor, D. Juan Lotger, a Dominican, conducted the interrogatories with stern severity; the torture was used. A Council was assembled at Tarra-gona, on which sat the Archbishop, Guillen da Rocca-berti, with his suffragans. The Templars were declared innocent; above all suspicion." "No one was to dare from that time to defame them." Other interrogatories took place in Medina del Campo, Medina Celi, and in Lisbon. The Council of Salamanca, presided over by the Archbishop of Santiago, the Bishop of Lisbon, and some other prelates, having made diligent investigation of the truth, declared the Templars of Castile, Leon, and Portugal free from all the charges imputed against them,† reserving the final judgement for the Supreme Pontiff.

In Germany Peter Ashpalter, Archbishop of Mentz, summoned a Synod in obedience to the Pope's Bull issued to the Archbishops of Mentz, Cologne, Treves,

* See Zurita Anales, Campomanes.

† "Neque enim tam culpabiles inventi fuerunt, ac fama ferebat, quamvis tormentis adacti fuissent ad confessionem criminum."—Mansi, Concil. sub ann.

‡ "Y si mandò, que nadie se atraviase a infamarlos por quanto en la averiguacion hecha por el concilio fueron hallados libros de toda mala suspuesta."—Campomanes, Dissert. vii.

and Magdeburg. The Council was seated, the Primate and his brother prelates. Suddenly Hugh, Wild and Rheingraf, the Preceptor of the Order at Grumbach near Meissenheim, entered the hall with his Knights in full armour and in the habit of the Order. The Archbishop calmly demanded their business. In a loud clear voice Hugh replied, that he and his Brethren understood that the Council was assembled, under a commission from the Roman Pontiff, for the abolition of the Order; that enormous crimes and more than heathen wickednesses were charged against them; they had been condemned without legal hearing or conviction. "Wherefore before the Holy Fathers present he appealed to a future Pope and to his whole clergy; and entered his public protest that those who had been delivered up and burned had constantly denied those crimes, and on that denial had suffered tortures and death: that God had avouched their innocence by a wonderful miracle, their white mantles marked with the red-cross had been exposed to fire and would not burn."^u The Archbishop fearing lest a tumult should arise, accepted the protest, and dismissed them with courtesy. A year afterwards a Council at Mentz, having heard thirty-eight witnesses, declared the Order guiltless. A Council held by the Archbishop of Treves came to the same determination. Burchard, Archbishop of Magdeburg, a violent and unjust man, attempted to arrest the Templars of the North of Germany. He was compelled to release them. They defended the fortress of Beyer Naumbourg against the Archbishop. Public favour appears to have been on their side: no condemnation took place.

^u Serrarius, *Res Moguntiacæ*.—Mansl, vol. xxv. p. 297.

Christian history has few problems more perplexing, yet more characteristic of the age, than the guilt or innocence of the Templars. Two ^{The problem.} powerful interests have conspired in later times against them. The great legists of monarchical France, during a period of vast learning, thought it treason against the monarchy to suppose that, even in ^{The lawyers.} times so remote, an ancestor of Louis XIV. could have been guilty of such atrocious iniquity as the unjust condemnation of the Templars. The whole archives were entirely in the power of these legists. The documents were published with laborious erudition; but throughout, both in the affair of the Templars and in the strife with Boniface VIII., and in the prosecution of his memory, with a manifest, almost an avowed, bias towards the King of France. The honour, too, of the legal profession seemed involved in these questions. The distinguished ancestors of the great modern lawyers, the De Flottes, De Plasians, and the Nogarets, who raised the profession to be the predominant power in the state, and set it on equal terms with the hierarchy—the founders almost of the parliaments of France—must not suffer attainder, or be degraded into the servile counsellors of proceedings which violated every principle of law and of justice.

On the other hand the ecclesiastical writers, who esteem every reproach against the Pope as an ^{The ecclesiastical.} insult to, or a weakening of their religion, would rescue Clement V. from the guilt of the unjust persecution, spoliation, abolition of an Order to which Christendom owed so deep a debt of honour and of gratitude. Papal infallibility, to those who hold it in its highest sense, or Papal impeccability, in which they would fondly array, as far as possible, each hallowed

successor of St. Peter, is endangered by the weakness, if not worse than weakness, of the Holy Father. But the calmer survey of the whole reign of Philip the Fair, of his character and that of his counsellors—of his measures and his necessities—of his unscrupulous ambition, avarice, fraud, violence—of the other precedents of his oppression—at least throws no improbability on the most discreditable version of this affair. Clement V., inextricably fettered by the compact through which he bought the tiara, still in the realm or within the power of Philip, with no religious, no moral strength in his personal character, had, as Pope, at least one, if not more than one object—the eluding or avoiding the condemnation of Pope Boniface, to which must be sacrificed every other right or claim to justice. The Papal authority was absolutely on the hazard; the condemnation of Boniface would crumble away its very base. A great Italian Pope might have beheld in the military Orders, now almost discharged from their functions in the East, a power which might immeasurably strengthen the See of Rome. They might become a feudal militia, of vast wealth and possessions, holding directly of himself, if skilfully managed, at his command, in every kingdom in Christendom. With this armed aristocracy, with the Friar Preachers to rule the middle or more intellectual classes, the Friar Minors to keep alive and govern the fanaticism of the lowest, what could limit or control his puissance? But a French Pope, a Pope in the position of Clement, had no such splendid visions of supremacy; what he held, he held almost on sufferance; he could maintain himself by dexterity and address alone, not by intrepid assertion of authority. Nor was it difficult to abuse himself into a belief or a supposed belief in the guilt of the Templars. He had but to accept without

too severe examination the evidence heaped before him; to authorise as he did—and in so doing he introduced nothing new, startling, or contrary to the usage of the Church—the terrible means, of which few doubted the justice, used to extort that evidence. The iniquity, the cruelty was all the King's; his only responsible act at last was in the mildest form the abolition of an Order which had ceased to fulfil the aim for which it was founded; and by taking this upon himself, he retained the power of quietly thwarting the avarice of the King, and preventing the escheat of all the possessions of the Order to the Crown.

Our history has shown the full value of the evidence against the Order. Beyond the confessions of the Templars themselves there was absolutely ^{Evidence.} nothing but the wildest, most vague, most incredible tales of superstition and hatred. In France alone, and where French influence prevailed, were confessions obtained. Elsewhere, in Spain, in Germany, parts of Italy, there was an absolute acquittal; in England, Scotland, and Ireland there appears no evidence which in the present day would commit a thief, or condemn him to transportation. In France these confessions were invariably, without exception, crushed out of men imprisoned, starved, disgraced, under the most relentless tortures, or under well-grounded apprehensions of torture, degradation, and misery, with, on the other hand, promises of absolution, freedom, pardon, royal favour. Yet on the instant that they struggle again into the light of day; on the first impulse of freedom and hope; no sooner do they see themselves for a moment out of the grasp of the remorseless King; under the judgement, it might be, of the less remorseless Church, than all these confessions are for the most part

retracted, retracted fully, unequivocally. This retraction was held so fatal to the cause of their enemies that all the bravest were burned and submitted to be burned rather than again admit their guilt. The only points on which there was any great extent or unanimity of confession were the ceremonies at the reception, the abnegation of Christ, the insult to the Cross, with the other profane or obscene circumstances. These were the points on which it was the manifest object of the prosecutors to extort confessions which were suggested by the hard, stern questions, the admission of which mostly satisfied the Court.

Admit to the utmost that the devout and passionate enthusiasm of the Templars had died away, that familiarity with other forms of belief in the East had deadened the fanatic zeal for Christ and his Sepulchre; that Oriental superstitions, the belief in magic, talismans, amulets, had crept into many minds; that in not a few the austere morals had yielded to the wild life, the fiery sun, the vices of the East; that the corporate spirit of the Order, its power, its wealth, its pride, had absorbed the religious spirit of the first Knights: yet there is something utterly inconceivable in the general, almost universal, requisition of a naked, ostentatious, offensive, insulting renunciation of the Christian faith, a renunciation following immediately on the most solemn vow; not after a long, slow initiation into the Order, not as the secret, esoteric doctrine of the chosen few, but on the threshold of the Order, on the very day of reception. It must be supposed, too, that this should not have transpired; that it should not have been indignantly rejected by many of noble birth and brave minds; or that all who did dare to reject it should have been secretly made away with, or overawed by the terror of

death, or the solemnity of their vow of obedience; that there should have been hardly any prudential attempts at concealment, full liberty of confession, actual confession, it should seem, to bishops, priests, and friars; and yet that it should not have got abroad, except perhaps in loose rumours, in suspicions, which may have been adroitly instilled into the popular mind: that nothing should have been made known till denounced by the two or three renegades produced by William of Nogaret.

The early confession of Du Molay, his retractation of his retractation, are facts no doubt embarrassing, yet at the same time very obscure. But the genuine chivalrous tone of the language in which he asserted that the confession had been tampered with, or worse; the care manifestly taken that his confession should not be made in the presence of the Pope, the means no doubt used, the terror of torture, or actual, degrading, agonising torture, to incapacitate him from appearing at Poitiers:—these and many other considerations greatly lighten or remove this difficulty. His death, hereafter to be told, which can hardly be attributed but to vengeance for his having arraigned, or fear lest he should with too great authority arraign the whole proceedings, with all the horrible circumstances of that death, confirms this view.

Du Molay was a man of brave and generous impulses, but not of firm and resolute character; he was unsuited for his post in such perilous times. That post required not only the most intrepid mind, but a mind which could calculate with sagacious discrimination the most prudent as well as the boldest course. On him rested the fame, the fate, of his Order; the freedom, the exemption from torture or from shame, of each single

brother, his companions in arms, his familiar friends. And this man was environed by the subtlest of foes. When he unexpectedly breaks out into a bold and appalling disclosure, De Plasian is at hand to soften by persuasion, to perplex with argument, to bow by cruel force. His generous nature may neither have comprehended the arts of his enemies, nor the full significance, the sense which might be drawn from his words. He may have been tempted to some admissions, in the hope not of saving himself but his Order; he may have thought by some sacrifice to appease the King or to propitiate the Pope. The secrets of his prison-house were never known. All he said was noted down and published, and reported to the Pope; all he refused to say (except that one speech before the Papal Commissioners) suppressed. He may have had a vague trust in the tardy justice of the Pope, when out of the King's power, and lulled himself with this precarious hope. Nor can we quite assume that he was not the victim of absolute and groundless forgery.

All contemporary history, and that history which is nearest the times, except for the most part contemporary history. the French biographers of Pope Clement, denounce in plain unequivocal terms the avarice of Philip the Fair as the sole cause of the unrighteous condemnation of the Templars. Villani emphatically pronounces that the charges of heresy were advanced in order to seize their treasures, and from secret jealousy of the Grand Master. "The Pope abandoned the Order to the King of France, that he might avert, if possible, the condemnation of Boniface."* Zantfliet, Canon of

* "Mosso da avarizia si fece promettere dal Papa secretamente di disfare la detta Ordine de Templari . . . ma più si dice che fu per trarre di loro molta moneta, e per isdegno preso col maestro del tempio, e colla ma-

Liège, describes the noble martyrdom of the Templars, that of Du Molay from the report of an eye-witness: "had not their death tended to gratify his insatiate appetite for their wealth, their noble demeanour had triumphed over the perfidy of the avaricious King." The Cardinal Antonino of Florence, a Saint, though he adopts in fact almost the words of Villani, is even more plain and positive:—"The whole was forged by the avarice of the King, that he might despoil the Templars of their wealth."

Yet the avarice of Philip was baffled, at least as to the full harvest he hoped to reap. The absolute confiscation of all the estates of a religious Order bordered too nearly on invasion of the property of the Church; the lands and treasures were dedicated inalienably to pious uses, specially to the conquest of the Holy Land. The King had early been forced to consent to make over the custody of the lands to the Bishops of the dioceses; careful inventories too were to be made of all their goods, for which the King's officers were responsible. But of the moveables of which the King had taken possession, it may be doubted if much, or any part, was allowed to escape his iron grasp, or whether

gione. Il Papa per levarsi da dosso il Rè di Francia, per contentarlo per la richiesta di condannare Papa Bonifazio."—*l. viii. c. 92.*

¶ "Dicens eos tam peversâ animi fortitudine regis avari vixisse perfidiam, nisi moriendo illuc tetendissent, quo ejus appetitus inexplebilis cupiebat. quamquam non minori idcirco gloria fuerit, si recto præligentes judicio, inter tormenta maluerint deficere, quam adversus veritatem dixisse aut famam justâ quæsitam turpissimâ

sceleris confessione maculare." He describes Du Molay's death (see further on), "rege spectante," and adds, "qui hæc vidit scriptori testimonium præbuit."—Zantfliet. *Chronica*, apud Martens. Zantfliet's *Chronica* was continued to 1460—*Collect. Nov. v. 5.*

¶ "Totum tamen falsè conficturi ex avaritiâ, ut illi religiosi Templarii exspoliarentur bonis suis."—*S. Antonin. Archiep. Florent. Hist. Hæc* wrote about A.D. 1450.

any account was ever given of the vast treasures accumulated in the vaults, in the chapels, in the armouries, in the storehouses of the Temple castles. The lands indeed, both in England and in France, were at length made over to the Hospitallers; yet, according to Villani,^a they were so burthened by the demands, dilapidations, and exactions of the King's officers, they had to purchase the surrender from the King and other princes at such vast cost of money, raised at such exorbitant interest, that the Order of St. John was poorer rather than richer from what seemed so splendid a grant. The Crown claimed enormous sums as due on the sequestration. Some years later Pope John XXII. complains that the King's officers seized the estates of the Hospitallers as an indemnity for claims which had arisen during the confiscation.^b

The dissolution of the Order was finally determined. "If," said the Pope, "it cannot be destroyed by the way of justice, let it be destroyed by the way of expediency, lest we offend our dear son the King of France."^c The Council of Vienne was to pronounce the solemn act of dissolution. Of the Templars the few who had been absolved, and had not retracted their confession, were permitted to enter into other orders, or to retire into monasteries. Many had thrown off the habit of the

^a "Ma convenneho loro ricogliere e ricomperare dal Rè di Francia e dalli altri principi e Signori con tanta quantità di moneta, che con gli interessi corsi poi, la magione dello Spedale fu e è in più povertà, che prima avendo solo il suo proprio." Villani is good authority in money matters.

^b Dupuy, *Condemnation*.

^c "Et sicut audiivi ab uno, qui fuit

examinator causae et testium, destructus fuit contra justitiam, et mihi dixit, quod ipse Clemens protulit hoc, 'Et si non per viam justitiae potest destrui, destruaturn tamen per viam expedientiae, ne scandalizetur charus filius noster Rex Franciae.'"—Alberici de Rosate Bergomenensis, *Dictionarium Juris*: Venetiae, 1579, folio; sub voce *Templarii*, quoted by Haveman, p

Order, and in remote parts fell back to secular employments: many remained in prison. Du Molay and the three other heads of the Order were reserved in close custody for a terrible fate, hereafter to be told.^d

^d Wilcke asserts (p 342) that Mol-denbauer's publication of the Proceedings against the Templars (now more accurately and fully edited by M. Michelet) was bought up by the Freemasons as injurious to the fame of the Templars. If this was so, the Freemasons committed an error: my doubts of their guilt are strongly confirmed by the Procès. Wilcke makes three regular gradations of initiation: I. The denial of Christ; II. The kisses; III. The worship of the Idol. This is contrary to all the evidence; the two first are always described as simultaneous. Wilcke has supposed that so long as the Order consisted only of knights, it was orthodox. The clerks introduced into the Order, chiefly Friar Minorites, brought in learning and the wild speculative opinions. But for this he alleges not the least proof.

* A modern school of history, somewhat too prone to make or to imagine discoveries, has condemned the Templars upon other grounds. These fierce unlettered warriors have risen into Oriental mystics. Not merely has their intercourse with the East softened off their abhorrence of Mohammedanism, induced a more liberal tone of thought, or overlaid their Western superstitions with a layer of Oriental imagery—they have become Gnostic Theists, have adopted many of the old Gnostic charms, amulets, and allegorical idols. Under these influences they had framed a secret

body of statutes, communicated only to the initiate, who were slowly and after long probation admitted into the abstruse and more awful mysteries. Not only this, the very branch of the Gnostics has been indicated, that of the Ophitæ, of whom they are declared to be the legitimate Western descendants. If they have thus had precursors, neither have they wanted successors. The Templars are the ancestors (as Wilcke thought, the acknowledged ancestors) of the secret societies, which have subsisted by regular tradition down to modern times—the Freemasons, Illuminati, and many others. It is surprising on what loose, vague evidence rests the whole of this theory: on amulets, rings, images, of which there is no proof whatever that they belonged to the Templars, or if they did, that they were not accidentally picked up by individuals in the East; on casual expressions of worthless witnesses, *e. g.*, Staplebridge the English renegade; on certain vessels, or bowls converted into vessels, used in an imaginary Fire-Baptism, deduced, without any regard to gaps of centuries in the tradition, from ancient heretics, and strangely mingled up with the Sangreal of mediæval romance. M. von Hammer has brought great Oriental erudition, but I must say, not much Western logic, to bear on the question; he has been thoroughly refuted, as I think, by M. Raynouard and others. Another

cognate ground is the discovery of certain symbols, and those symbols interpreted into obscene significations, on the churches of the Templars. But the same authorities show that these symbols were by no means peculiar to the Temple churches. No doubt among the monks there were foul imaginations, and in a coarse age architects—many of them monks—gratified those foul imaginations by such unseemly ornaments. But the argument assumes the connexion or identification of the architects with the secret guild of Freemasonry (in which guild I do not believe), and also of the Freemasons with the Templars, which is totally destitute of proof. It appears to me absolutely monstrous to conclude that when all the edifices, the churches, the mansions, the castles, the farms, the granaries of the Templars in France and England, in every country of Europe, came into the possession of their sworn enemies; when these symbols, in a state far more perfect, must have stared them in the face; when the lawyers were on the track for evidence, when vague rumours had set all their persecutors on the scent; when Philip and the Pope would have paid any price for a single idol, and not one could be produced: because in our own days, among the thousand misshapen and grotesque sculptures, gargoyle, and corbels, here and there may be discerned or made out something like a black cat, or some other shape, said to have been those of Templar idols,—therefore the guilt of the Order, and their lineal descent from ancient heretics, should be assumed as history. Yet on such grounds the Orientalisation of the whole Order, not here and

there of a single renegade, has been drawn with complacent satisfaction. The great stress of all, however, is laid on the worship of Baphomet. The talismans, bowls, symbols, are even called Baphometric. Now, with M. Raynouard, I have not the least doubt that Baphomet is no more than a transformation of the name of Mahomet. Here is only one passage from the Provençal poetry. It is from a Poem by the Chevalier du Temple, quoted Hist. Littér. de la France, xiv. p. 345:

“ Quar Dieux dorm, qui vellar soles,
E Bafomet obra de son poder,
E sul obra di Melcadezer ”

“ God, who used to watch (during the Crusades), now slumbers, and Bafomet (Mahomet) works as he wills to complete the triumph of the Sultan.” I am not surprised to find fanciful writers like M. Michelet, who write for effect, and whose positiveness seems to me not seldom in the inverse ratio to the strength of his authorities, adopting such wild notions, but even the clear intellect of Mr. Hallam appears to me to attribute more weight than I should have expected to this theory.—Note to Middle Ages, vol. iii. p. 50. It appears to me, I confess, that so much learning was never wasted on a fantastic hypothesis as by M. von Hammer in his *Mysterium Baphometis Revelatum*. The statutes of the Order were published in 1840 by M. Maillard de Chambure. They contain nothing but what is pious and austere. This, as Mr. Hallam observes, is of course, and proves nothing. M. de Chambure says that it is acknowledged in Germany that M. von Hammer's theory is an idle chimera.

CHAPTER III.

Arraignment of Boniface. Council of Vienne.

IF, however, Pope Clement hoped to appease or to divert the immitigable hatred of Philip and his ministers from the persecution of the memory of Pope Boniface by the sacrifice of the Templars, or at least to gain precious time which might be pregnant with new events, he was doomed to disappointment. The hounds were not thrown off their track, not even arrested in their course, by that alluring quarry. That dispute was still going on simultaneously with the affair of the Templars. Philip, at every fresh hesitation of the Pope, broke out into more threatening indignation. Nogaret and the lawyers presented memorial on memorial, specifying with still greater distinctness and particularity the offences which they declared themselves ready to prove. They complained, not without justice, that the most material witnesses might be cut off by death; that every year of delay weakened their power of producing attestations to the validity of their charges.^a

Persecution
of the me-
mory of Pope
Boniface

The hopes indeed held out to the King's avarice and revenge by the abandonment of the Templars—hopes, if not baffled, eluded—were more than counterbalanced by his failure in obtaining the Empire for Charles of Valois. An act of enmity sank deeper into the proud

^a All the documents are in Dupuy, *Preuves*, p. 337 *et seqq.*, with Baillet's smaller volume.

heart of Philip than an act of favour: the favour had been granted grudgingly, reluctantly, with difficulty, with reservation; the enmity had been subtle, perfidious, under the guise of friendship.

Pope Clement had now secured, as he might fondly suppose, his retreat in Avignon, in some degree beyond the King's power. In France he dared not stay; to Italy he could not and would not go. The King's messengers were in Avignon to remind him that he had pledged himself to hear and examine the witnesses

against the memory of Boniface. Not the King's messengers alone. Reginald di Supino had been most deeply implicated in the affair of Anagni. He had assembled a great body of witnesses, as he averred, to undergo the expected examination before the Pope. Either the Pope himself, or the friends of Boniface, who had still great power, and seemed determined, from attachment to their kinsman or from reverence for the Popedom, to hazard all in his defence, dreaded this formidable levy of witnesses, whom Reginald di Supino would hardly have headed unless in arms. Supino had arrived within three leagues of Avignon when he received intelligence from the King's emissaries of an ambuscade of the partisans of Boniface, stronger than his own troop: he would not risk the attack, but retired to Nismes, and there, in the presence of the municipal authorities, entered a public protest against those who prevented him and his witnesses, by the fear of death, from approaching the presence of the Pope. The Pope himself was not distinctly charged with, but not acquitted of complicity in this deliberate plot to arrest the course of justice.^b

^b "Recesserunt propterea predicti, qui cum dicto domino Raynaldo venerant, ad propria redeuntes, mortis meritò periculum formidantes."—*Preuves*, p. 289

Clement was in a strait: he was not in the dominions, but yet not absolutely safe from the power of Philip. Charles, King of Naples, Philip's ^{Difficulties of the Pope} kinsman, as Count of Provence, held the adjacent country. The King of France had demanded a Council to decide this grave question. The Council had been summoned and adjourned by Clement. But a Pope, though a dead Pope, arraigned before a Council, all the witnesses examined publicly, in open Court, to proclaim to Christendom the crimes imputed to Boniface! Where, if the Council should assume the power of condemning a dead Pope, would be the security of a living one? Clement wrote, not to Philip, but to Charles of Valois, representing the toils and anxieties which he was enduring, the laborious days and sleepless nights, in the investigation of the affair of Boniface. He entreated that the judgement might be left altogether to himself and the Church. He implored the intercession of Charles with the King, of Charles whom he had just thwarted in his aspiring views on the Empire.*

But the King was not to be deterred by soft words. He wrote more péremptorily, more imperiously. "Some witnesses, men of the highest weight and above all exception, had already died in the Court of Rome and elsewhere: the Pope retarded the safe-conduct necessary for the appearance of other witnesses, who had been seized, tortured, put to death, by the partisans of Boniface." The Pope replied in a humble tone:—"Never was so weighty a process so far advanced in so short a time. Only one witness had died, and his deposition had been received on his deathbed. He denied the seizure, torture, death, of any witnesses. One of these

* *Preuves*, p. 290. May 23, 1309.

very witnesses, a monk, it was confidently reported, was in France with William de Nogaret." He complained of certain letters forged in his name—a new proof of the daring extent to which at this time such forgeries were carried. In those letters the names of Cardinals, both of the King's party and on that of Boniface, had been audaciously inserted. These letters had been condemned and burned in the public consistory. The Pope turns to another affair. Philip, presuming on the servility of the Pope, had introduced a clause into the treaty with the Flemings, that if they broke the treaty they should be excommunicated, and not receive absolution without the consent of the King or his successors. The Pope replies, "that he cannot abdicate for himself or future Popes the full and sole power of granting absolution. If the King, as he asserts, can adduce any precedent for such clause, he would consent to that, or even a stronger one; but he has taken care that the Flemings are not apprised of his objection to the clause."¹

Clement was determined, as far as a mind like his Determination of Clement. was capable of determination, to reserve the inevitable judgement on the memory of Boniface to himself and his own Court, and not to recognise the dangerous tribunal of a Council, fatal to living as to dead pontiffs. He issued a Bull,² summoning Philip King of France, his three sons, with the Counts of Evreux, St. Pol, and Dreux, and William de Plasian, according to their own petition, to prove their charges against Pope Boniface; to appear before him Feb. 2, 1310. in Avignon on the first court-day after the Feast of the Purification of the Virgin. The Bishop of

¹ Preuves, p. 292. August 28, 1309.

² Sept. 1309. Raynaldus sub ann. c. 4

Paris was ordered to serve this citation on the three Counts and on William de Plasian.^f

Philip seemed to be embarrassed by this measure. He shrunk or thought it beneath his dignity for himself or his sons to stand as public prosecutors before the Papal Court. Instead of the King appeared a haughty letter. "He had been compelled reluctantly to take cognisance of the usurpation and wicked life of Pope Boniface. Public fame, the representations of men of high esteem in the realm, nobles, prelates, doctors, had arraigned Boniface as a heretic, and an intruder into the fold of the Lord. A Parliament of his whole kingdom had demanded that, as the champion and defender of the faith, he should summon a General Council, before which men of the highest character declared themselves ready to prove these most appalling charges. William de Nogaret had been sent to summon Pope Boniface to appear before that Council. The Pope's frantic resistance had led to acts of violence, not on the part of Nogaret, but of the Pope's subjects, by whom he was universally hated. These charges had been renewed after the death of Boniface, before Benedict XI. and before the present Pope. The Pope, in other affairs, especially that of the Templars, had shown his regard for justice. All these things were to be finally determined at the approaching Council. But if the Pope, solicitous to avoid before the Council the odious intricacies of charges, examinations, investigations, in the affair of Boniface, desired to determine it by the plenitude of the Apostolic authority, he left it entirely to the judgement of the Pope, whether in the Council or elsewhere. He was

The King
will not
appear as
prosecutor.

^f Raynaldus ut supra. Oct. 12.

prepared to submit the whole to the disposition and ordinance of the Holy See." The King's sons, summoned in like manner to undertake the office of prosecutors, declined to appear in that somewhat humiliating character.*

William de Nogaret and William de Plasian remained the sole prosecutors in this great cause, and Feb. 14. they entered upon it with a profound and accumulated hatred to Boniface and to his memory: De Plasian with the desperate resolution of a man so far committed in the strife that either Boniface must be condemned, or himself be held an impious, false accuser; Nogaret with the conviction that Boniface must be pronounced a monster of iniquity, or himself hardly less than a sacrilegious assassin. With both, the dignity and honour of their profession were engaged in a bold collision with the hierarchical power which had ruled the human mind for centuries; both had high, it might be conscientious, notions of the monarchical authority, its independence, its superiority to the sacerdotal; both were bound by an avowed and resolute servility, which almost rose to noble attachment, to their King and to France. The King of France, if any Sovereign, was to be exempt from Papal tyranny, and hatred to France was one of the worst crimes of Boniface. Both, unless Boniface was really the infidel, heretic, abandoned profligate, which they represented him, were guilty of using unscrupulously, of forging, suborning, a mass of evidence and a host of witnesses, of which they could not but know the larger part to be audaciously and absolutely false.

On the other side appeared the two nephews of Boni

face and from six to ten Italian doctors of law, chosen no doubt for their consummate science and ability; as canon lawyers confronting civil lawyers ^{Italians.} with professional rivalry, and prepared to maintain the most extravagant pretensions of the Decretals as the Statute Law of the Church. They could not but be fully aware how much the awe, the reverence, and the power of the Papacy depended on the decision; they were men, it might be, full of devout admiration even of the overweening haughtiness of Boniface; churchmen, in whom the intrepid maintenance of what were held to be Church principles more than compensated for all the lowlier and gentler virtues of the Gospel.^h It was a strange trial, the arraignment of a dead Pope, a Rhadamanthine judgement on him who was now before a higher tribunal.

On the 16th of March the Pope solemnly opened the Consistory at Avignon, in the palace belonging ^{The Consistory opened.} to the Dominicans, surrounded by his Cardinals and a great multitude of the clergy and laity. The Pope's Bull was read, in which, after great commendation of the faith and zeal of the King of France, and high testimony to the fame of Boniface, he declared that heresy was so execrable, so horrible an offence, that he could not permit such a charge to rest unexamined. The French lawyers were admitted as prosecutors.ⁱ The Italians protested against their admission.^k

^h "Gothus de Asimino utriusque juris, Baldredus Beyeth *Decretorum* Doctores." Baldied, who took the lead in the defence, is described as Glascuensis

ⁱ Adam de Lombal, Clerk, and Peter de Galahaud, and Peter de Bleonasio,

the King's nuncios (nuntii), appeared with De Plasian and De Noguet.

^k James of Modena offered himself to prove "quod prædicta opponentes ad opponendum contra dictum dominum Bonifacium admitti non debent."

On Friday (March 20th) the Court opened the session. The prosecutors put in a protest of immeasurable length, declaring that they did not appear in consequence of the Pope's citation of the King of France and his sons. That citation was informal, illegal, based on false grounds. They demanded that the witnesses who were old and sick should be first heard. They challenged certain Cardinals, the greater number (they would not name them publicly), as having a direct interest in the judgement, as attached by kindred or favour to Boniface, as notoriously hostile, as having entered into plots against William de Nogaret, as having prejudiced the mind of Benedict XI. against him. Nogaret, who always reverted to the affair of Anagni, asserted that act to have been the act of a true Catholic, one of devout, filial love, not of hatred, the charity of one who would bind a maniac or rouse a man in a lethargy.^m He had made common cause with the nobles of Anagni, all but those who plundered the Papal treasures.

On the 27th De Nogaret appeared again, and entered a protest against Baldred and the rest, as defenders of Pope Boniface, against eight Cardinals, by name, as promoted by Boniface: these men might not bear any part in the cause. Protest was met by protest: a long, wearisome, and subtle altercation ensued. Each tried to repel the other party from the Court. Nothing could be more captious than the arguments of the prosecutors, who took exception against any defence of Boniface. The Italians answered that no one could be brought into Court but by a lawful prosecutor, which Nogaret and

^m "Non fuit igitur odium sed caritas, non fuit injuria sed pietas, non proditio sed fidelitas, non sacrilegium sed sacri defensorio, non parricidium sed filialis devotio ut (et?) fraterna, cum qui furiosum ligat vel lethargicum excitat,"—p. 388.

De Plasian were not, being notorious enemies, assassins, defamers of the Pope. There was absolutely no cause before the Court. The crimination and recrimination dragged on their weary length. It was the object of De Nogaret to obtain absolution, at least under certain restrictions.^a This personal affair began to occupy almost as prominent a part as the guilt of Boniface. Months passed in the gladiatorial strife of the lawyers.* Every question was reopened—the legality of Coelestine's abdication, the election of Boniface, the absolute power of the King of France. Vast erudition was displayed on both sides. Meantime the examination of the witnesses had gone on in secret before the Pope or his Commissioners. Of these examinations appear Witnesses. only the reports of twenty-three persons examined in April, of eleven examined before the two Cardinals, Berengario, Bishop of Tusculum, and Nicolas, of St. Eusebio, with Bernard Guido, the Grand Inquisitor of Toulouse. Some of the eleven were re-examinations of those who had made their depositions in April. In the latter case the witnesses were submitted to what was intended to be severe, but does not seem very skilful, cross-examination. On these attestations, if these were all, posterity is reduced to this perplexing alternative of belief:—Either there was a vast systematic subornation of perjury, which brought together before the Pope and the

^a In the midst of these disputes arose a curious question, whether William de Nogaret was still under excommunication. It was argued that an excommunicated person, if merely saluted by the Pope, or if the Pope knowingly entered into conversation with him, was thereby absolved. The Pope disclaimed this

doctrine, and declared that he had never by such salutation or intercourse with De Nogaret intended to confer that precious privilege. This was to be the rule during his pontificate. He would not, however, issue a Decretal on the subject.—p. 409.

* There is a leap from May 13 to Aug. 3.

Cardinals, monks, abbots, canons, men of dignified station, from various parts of Italy: and all these were possessed with a depth of hatred, ingrained into the hearts of men by the acts and demeanour of Boniface, and perhaps a religious horror of his treatment of Pope Coelestine, which seems to be rankling in the hearts of some; or with a furiousness of Ghibelline hostility, which would recoil from no mendacity, which would not only accept every rumour, but invent words, acts, circumstances, with the most minute particularity and with perpetual appeal to other witnesses present at the same transaction. Nor were these depositions wrung out, like those of the Templars, by torture; they were spontaneous, or, if not absolutely spontaneous, only summoned forth by secret suggestion, by undetected bribery, by untraceable influence: they had all the outward semblance of honest and conscientious zeal for justice.

On the other hand, not only must the Pope's guilt be assumed, but the Pope's utter, absolute, ostentatious defiance of all prudence, caution, dissimulation, decency. Not only was he a secret, hypocritical unbeliever, and that not in the mysteries of the faith, but in the first principles of all religion; he was a contemptuous, boastful scoffer, and this on the most public occasions, and on occasions where some respectful concealment would not only have been expedient, but of paramount necessity to his interest or his ambition. The aspirant to the Papacy, the most Papal Pope who ever lived, laughed openly to scorn the groundwork of that Christianity on which rested his title to honour, obedience, power, worship.

The most remarkable of all these depositions is that of seven witnesses in succession, an abbot, three canons,

two monks, and others, to a discussion concerning the law of Mohammed. This was in the year of the pontificate of Cœlestine, when, if his enemies are to be believed, Benedetto Gaetani was deeply involved in intrigues to procure the abdication of Cœlestine, and his own elevation to the Papacy. At this time, even if these intrigues were untrue, a man so sagacious and ambitious could not but have been looking forward to his own advancement. Yet at this very instant, it is asseverated, Gaetani, in the presence of at least ten or twelve persons, abbots, canons, monks, declared as his doctrine,^p that no law was divine, that all were the inventions of men, merely to keep the vulgar in awe by the terrors of eternal punishment. Every law, Christianity among the rest, contained truth and falsehood; falsehood, because it asserted that God was one and three, which it was fatuous to believe; falsehood, for it is said that a virgin had brought forth, which was impossible; falsehood, because it avouched that the Son of God had taken the nature of man, which was ridiculous; falsehood, because it averred that bread was transubstantiated into the body of Christ, which was untrue. "It is false, because it asserts a future life." "Let God do his worst with me in another life, from which no one has returned but to fantastic people, who say that they have seen and heard all kinds of strange things, even have heard angels singing. So I believe and so I hold, as doth every educated man. The vulgar hold otherwise. We must speak as the vulgar do; think and believe with the few." Another added to all this, that when the bell rang for the passing of the Host, the future Pope smiled and said, "You had better

^p "Quasi per modum doctrinæ."

go and see after your own business, than after such folly." ⁴ Three of these witnesses were reheard at the second examination, minutely questioned as to the place of this discussion, the dress, attitude, words of Gaetani: they adhered, with but slight deviation from each other, to their deposition; whatever its worth, it was unshaken.⁵ These blasphemies, if we are to credit another witness, had been his notorious habit from his youth. The Prior of St. Giles at San Gemino, near Narni, had been at school with him at Todi: he was a dissolute youth, indulged in all carnal vices, in drink and play, blaspheming God and the Virgin. He had heard Boniface, when a Cardinal, disputing with certain masters from Paris about the Resurrection. Cardinal Gaetani maintained that neither soul nor body rose again.⁶ To this dispute a notary, Oddarelli of Acqua Sparta, gave the same testimony. The two witnesses declared that they had not come to Avignon for the purpose of giving this evidence; they had been required to appear before the Court by Bertrand de Roccanegata: they bore testimony neither from persuasion, nor for reward, neither from favour, fear, or hatred.

Two monks of St. Gregory at Rome had complained to the Pope of their Abbot, that he held the same loose and infidel doctrines, neither believed in the Resurrection, nor in the Sacraments of the Church; and denied that carnal sins were sins. They were dismissed contemptuously from the presence of Boniface. "Look at this froward race, that will not believe as their Abbot believes."⁷ A monk of St. Paul fared no better with similar denunciations of his Abbot.⁸

⁴ Truffas.

⁵ Witnesses vii. xiii.

⁶ Witnesses xvi. xviii.

⁷ Witnesses i. ii.

⁸ Witness xv.

Nicolo Pagano of Sermona, Primicerio of S. John Maggiore at Naples, deposed that Cœlestine, proposing to go from Sermona to Naples, sent Pagano's father Berard (the witness with him) to invite the Cardinal Gaetani to accompany him. Gaetani contemptuously refused. "Go ye with your Saint, I will be fooled no more." "If any man," said Berard, "ought to be canonised after death, it is Cœlestine." Gaetani replied, "Let God give me the good things of this life: for that which is to come I care not a bean; men have no more souls than beasts." Berard looked aghast. "How many have you ever seen rise again?" Gaetani seemed to delight in mocking (such, at least, was the testimony, intended, no doubt, to revolt to the utmost the public feeling against him) the Blessed Virgin. She is no more a virgin than my mother. I believe not in your "Mariola," "Mariola." He denied the presence of Christ in the Host. "It is mere paste."*

Yet even this most appalling improbability was surpassed by the report of another conversation attested by three witnesses, sons of knights of Lucca. The scene took place at the Jubilee, when millions of persons, in devout faith in the religion of Christ, in fear of Hell, or in hope of Paradise, were crowding from all parts of Europe, and offering incense to the majesty, the riches of the world to the avarice, of the Pope. Even then, without provocation, in mere wantonness of unbelief, he had derided all the truths of the Gospel. The ambassadors of two of the great cities of Italy—Lucca and Bologna—were standing before him. The death of a Campanian knight was announced. "He was a bad man," said the pious chaplain, "yet may Jesus Christ

* Witnesses xvi. xx. xxii.

receive his soul!" "Fool! to commend him to Christ; he could not help himself, how can he help others? he was no Son of God, but a wise man and a great hypocrite. The knight has had in this life all he will have. Paradise is a joyous life in this world; Hell a sad one." "Have we, then, nothing to do but to enjoy ourselves in this world? Is it no sin to lie with women?"—"No greater sin than to wash one's hands." "And this was said that all present might hear; not in jocoseness, but in serious mood." To this monstrous scene, in these words, three witnesses deposed on oath, and gave the names of the ambassadors—men, no doubt, of rank, and well known, to whom they might thus seem to appeal.⁷

The account of a conversation with the famous Roger de Loria was hardly less extraordinary. Of the two witnesses, one was a knight of Palermo, William, son of Peter de Calatagerona. Roger de Loria, having revolted from the house of Arragon, came to Rome to be reconciled to the Pope. Yet at that very time the Pope wantonly mocked and insulted the devout seaman, by laughing to scorn that faith which bowed him at his own feet. De Loria had sent the Pope an offering of rich Sicilian fruits and honey. "See," he said, "what a beautiful land I must have left, abounding in such fruits, and have exposed myself to so great dangers to visit you. Had I died on this holy journey, surely I had been saved." "It might be so, or it might not." "Father, I trust that, if at such a moment I had died, Christ would have had mercy on me." The Pope said, "Christ! he was not the Son of God: he was a man eating and drinking like ourselves: by his preaching he

⁷ Witnesses xii. xlii.

drew many towards him, and died, but rose not again, neither will men rise again." "I," pursued the Pope, "am far mightier than Christ. I can raise up and enrich the lowly and poor; I can bestow kingdoms, and humble and beggar rich and powerful kings." In all the material parts of this conversation the two witnesses agreed: they were rigidly cross-examined as to the place, time, circumstances, persons present, the dress, attitude, gestures of the Pope; they were asked whether the Pope spoke in jest or earnest.*

The same or other witnesses deposed to as unblushing shamelessness regarding the foulest vices, as regarding these awful blasphemies—"What harm is there in simony? what harm in adultery, more than rubbing one's hands together?" This was his favourite phrase. Then were brought forward men formerly belonging to his household, to swear that they had brought women—one, first his wife, then his daughter—to his bed. Another bore witness that from his youth Boniface had been addicted to worse, to nameless vices—that he was notoriously so; one or two loathsome facts were avouched.

Besides all this, there were what in those days would perhaps be heard with still deeper horror—Charges of magic. magical rites and dealings with the powers of darkness. Many witnesses had heard that Benedetto Gaetani, that Pope Boniface, had a ring in which he kept an evil spirit. Brother Berard of Soriano had seen from a window the Cardinal Gaetani, in a garden below, draw a magic circle, and immolate a cock over a fire in an earthen pot. The blood and the flame mingled; a thick smoke arose. The Cardinal sat read-

* WITNESS X.

ing spells from a book, and conjuring up the devils. He then heard a terrible noise and wild voices, "Give us our share." Gaetani took up the cock and threw it over the wall—"Take your share." The Cardinal then left the garden, and shut himself alone in his most secret chamber, where throughout the night he was heard in deep and earnest conversation, and a voice, the same voice, was heard to answer. This witness deposed likewise to having seen Gaetani worshipping an idol, in which dwelt an evil spirit. This idol was given to him by the famous magician, Theodore of Bologna, and was worshipped as his God.*

Such was the evidence, the whole evidence which appears (there may have been more) so revolting to the faith, so polluting to the morals, so repulsive to decency, that it cannot be plainly repeated, yet adduced against the successor of St. Peter, the Vicar of Christ. What crimes, even for defamation, to charge against a Pope! To all this the Pope and the Consistory were compelled to listen in sullen patience. If true—if with a shadow of truth—how monstrous the state of religion and morals! If absolutely and utterly untrue—if foul, false libels, bought by the gold of the King of France, suborned by the unrelenting hatred, and got up by the legal subtlety of Do Nogaret and the rest—what humiliation to the Court of Rome to have heard, received, recorded such wicked aspersions, and to have left them unresented, unpunished! The glaring contradiction in the evidence, that Boniface was at once an atheist and a worshipper of idols, an open scoffer in public and a superstitious dealer in magic in private, is by no means the greatest improbability

Summary of
evidence.

* Witness xvi.

Such things have been. The direct and total repugnance of such dauntless, wanton, unprovoked blasphemies, even with the vices charged against Boniface, his unmeasured ambition, consummate craft, indomitable pride, is still more astounding, more utterly bewildering to the belief. But whatever the secret disgust and indignation of Clement, it must be suppressed; however the Cardinals, the most attached to the memory of Boniface, might murmur and burn with wrath in their hearts, they must content themselves with just eluding, with narrowly averting, his condemnation.

*Situation of
Clement.*

Philip himself, either from weariness, dissatisfaction with his own cause, caprice, or the diversion of his mind to other objects, consented to abandon the prosecution of the memory of Boniface, and to leave the judgement to the Pope. On this the gratitude of Clement knows no bounds; the adulation of his Bull on the occasion surpasses belief. Every act of Philip is justified; he is altogether acquitted of all hatred and injustice; his whole conduct is attributed to pious zeal. "The worthy head of that royal house, which had been ever devoted, had ever offered themselves and the realm for the maintenance of the Holy Mother Church of Rome, had been compelled by the reiterated representations of men of character and esteem," to investigate the reports unfavourable to the legitimate election, to the orthodox doctrine, and to the life of Pope Boniface. The King's full Parliament had urged him with irresistible unanimity to persist in this course. "We therefore, with our brethren the Cardinals, pronounce and decree that the aforesaid King, having acted, and still acting, at the frequent and repeated instance of these high and grave

Philip abandons the prosecution.

The Pope's Bull.

persons, has been and is exempt from all blame, has been incited by a true, sincere, and just zeal and fervour for the Catholic faith." It was thus acknowledged that there was a strong primary case against Boniface; the appeal to the Council was admitted; every act of violence justified, except the last assault at Anagni, as to which the Pope solemnly acquitted the King of all complicity. The condescension of the King, "the son of benediction and grace,"^b in at length thus tardily and ungraciously remitting the judgement to the Pope, is ascribed to divine inspiration.^c Nor were wanting more substantial marks of the Pope's gratitude. Every Bull prejudicial to the King, to the nobles, and the realm of France (not contained in the sixth book of Decretals), is absolutely cancelled and annulled, except the two called "Unam Sanctam" and "Rem non novam," and these are to be understood in the moderated sense assigned by the present Pontiff. All proceedings for forfeiture of privileges, suspension, excommunication, interdict, all deprivations or deposals against the King, his brothers, subjects, or kingdom; all proceedings against the accusers, prosecutors, arraigned in the cause; against the prelates, barons, and commons, on account of any accusation, denunciation, appeal, or petition for the convocation of a General Council; or for blasphemy, insult, injury by deed or word, against the said Boniface, even for his seizure, the assault on his house and person, the plunder of the treasure, or other acts at Anagni; for anything done in behalf of the King during his contest with Boniface; all such proceedings against the living or the

^b "Tanquam benedictionis et gratiæ filius."

^c "Nos itaque mansuetudinem regiam ac expertam in his devotionis et

reverentiæ filialis gratitudinem quas . . . dicto Regi divinitus credimus inspiratas."

dead, against persons of all ranks—cardinals, archbishops, bishops, emperors, or kings, whether instituted by Pope Boniface, or by his successor Benedict, are provisionally^d annulled, revoked, cancelled. "And if any aspersion, shame, or blame, shall have occurred to any one out of these denunciations, and charges against Boniface, whether during his life or after his death, or any prosecution be hereafter instituted on that account, these we absolutely abolish and declare null and void."^e

In order that the memory of these things be utterly extinguished, the proceedings of every kind against France are, under pain of excommunication, to be erased within four months from the capitular books and registers of the Holy See.^f The archives of the Papacy are to retain no single procedure injurious to the King of France, or to those, whoever they may be, who are thus amply justified for all their most virulent persecution, for all their contumacious resistance, for the foulest charges, for charges of atheism, simony, whoredom, sodomy, witchcraft, heresy, against the deceased Pope.

Fifteen persons only are exempted from this sweeping amnesty, or more than amnesty; among them William de Nogaret, Reginald Supino and his son, the other insurgents of Anagni, and Sciarra Colonna. These Philip, no doubt by a secret understanding with the Pope, surrendered to the mockery of punishment which might or might not be enforced. The penance appointed to the rest does not appear; but even William de Nogaret obtained provisional absolution.^g

^d "Ex cautela."

^e The Bull dated May, 1311.—Dupuy, Preuves.

^f In Haynaldus (sub ann.) is a full account of the Bulls and passages of Bulls entirely erased for the gratifica-

tion of King Philip from the Papal records; of course they were preserved by the pious care of the partisans of Boniface. See also Preuves, p. 303.

^g "Absolvimus ad cautelam."

The Pope, solicitous for the welfare of his soul, and in regard to the pressing supplications of the King, imposed this penance. At the next general Crusade Nogaret should in person set out with arms and horses for the Holy Land, there to serve for life, unless his term of service should be shortened by the mercy of the Pope or his successor. In the meantime, till this general Crusade (never to come to pass), he was to make a pilgrimage to certain shrines and holy places, one at Boulogne-sur-Mer, one at St. James of Compostella.^h Such was the sentence on the assailant, almost the assassin, of a Pope; on the persecutor of his memory by the most odious accusations; if those accusations were false, the suborner of the most monstrous system of falsehood, calumny, and perjury. The Pope received one hundred thousand florins from the King's ambassador as a reward for his labours in this cause.ⁱ This Bull of Clement V.^k broke for ever the spell of the Pontifical autocracy. A King might appeal to a Council against a Pope, violate his personal sanctity, constitute himself the public prosecutor by himself or by his agents for heresy, for immorality, invent or accredit the most hateful and loathsome charges, all with impunity, all even without substantial censure.

The Council of Vienne met at length; the number of prelates is variously stated from three hundred to one hundred and forty.^m It is said that Bishops were present from Spain, Germany, Denmark, England, Scotland, Ireland, Italy. It

Oct. 15 to
Nov. 1, 1311.
Council of
Vienne.

^h Ptolemy of Lucca calls this "penitentia dura,"

ⁱ Ptolem. Luc. apud Baluzium, p. 40.

^k Tunc ambasciatores Regis offerunt cameræ Domini Papæ centum millia florinorum quasi pro quadam recompensa-

tione laborum circa dictam causam."

^l Dated May, 1311.

^m Villani gives the larger number, the continuator of Nangis the smaller. Has the French writer given only the French prelates?

assumed the dignity of an Œcumenic Council. The Pope proposed three questions: I. The dissolution of the Order of the Temple; II. The recovery of the Holy Land (the formal object of every later Council, but which had sunk into a form); III. The reformation of manners and of ecclesiastical discipline. The affair of the Templars was the first. It might seem that this whole inquiry had been sifted to the bottom. Yet had the Pope made further preparation for the strong measure determined upon. The orders to the King of Spain to apply tortures for the extortion of confession had been renewed.^a The Templars were to be secure in no part of Christendom. The same terrible instructions had been sent to the Latin Patriarch of Constantinople, to the Bishops of Negropont, Famagosta, and Nicosia.^b Two thousand depositions had been accumulated, perhaps now slumber in the Vatican. But unexpected difficulties arose. On a sudden nine Templars, who had lurked in safe concealment, perhaps in the valleys of the Jura or the Alps, appeared before the Council, and demanded to be heard in defence of the Order. The Pope was not present. No sooner had he heard of this daring act than he commanded the nine intrepid defenders of their Order to be seized and cast into prison. He wrote in all haste to the King to acquaint him with this untoward interruption.^c But embarrassments increased: the acts were read before

^a "Ad efficiendam veritatem religiosorum fore tortori tradendos."—Letter of Clement to King of Spain, quoted by Raynouard, p. 183.

^b "Ad habendam ab eis veritatis plenitudinem promptiorem tormentis et questionibus, si sponte confiteri noluerint, experiri procuratis."—Apud

Raynald. 1311, c. llii.

^c The letter in Raynouard, p. 177. Raynouard is unfortunately seized with a fit of eloquence, and inserts a long speech which one of the Fathers of the Council ought to have spoken. The letter is dated Dec. 11.

the Fathers of the Council; all the foreign prelates except one Italian, all the French prelates except three, concurred in the justice of admitting the Order to a hearing and defence before the Council. These three were Peter of Courtenay, Archbishop of Rheims, who had burned the Templars at Senlis: Philip de Marigny of Sens, who had committed the fifty-four Knights to the flames in Paris; the Archbishop of Rouen, the successor of Bertrand de Troyes, who had presided at Pont de l'Arche.^a The Pope was obliged to prorogue the Council for a time. The winter wore away in private discussions.^b The awe of the King's presence was necessary to strengthen the Pope, and to intimidate the Council. The King had summoned an assembly of the realm at Lyons, now annexed to his kingdom. The avowed object was to secure the triumph of Jesus Christ in the Council.^c The Pope took courage; he summoned the prelates on whom he could depend to a secret consistory with the Cardinals. He announced that he had determined, by way of prudent provision,^d not of condemnation, to abolish the Order of Templars: he reserved to himself and to the Church the disposal of their persons and of their estates. On April 3 this act of dissolution was published in the full

A.D. 1312.

Council on the absolute and sole authority of the Pope. This famous Order was declared to be extinct; the proclamation was made in the presence

^a "In hac sententiâ concordant omnes prelati Italie præter unum, Hispaniæ, Theutoniciæ, Daniæ, Angliæ, Scotiæ, et Hiberniæ. Item Gallici, præter tres Metropolitanos, videlicet Remensem, Senonensem et Rothomagensem."—Ptolem. Luc. Vit. II. p.

43. Compare Walsingham. This was in the beginning of December.

^b Bernard Guido. Vit. III. Clement. Compare IV. et VI.

^c Hist. de Languedoc, xxix. c. 38, p. 152.

^d "Per provisiones"

of the King^u and his brother. We have already described the award of the estates to the Knights of St. John, the impoverishment of that Order^x by this splendid boon, or traffic,^y as it was called by the enemies of Clement.

Clement, perhaps, had rejoiced in secret at the opposition of the Council to the condemnation of the Templars. It aided him in extorting the price of the important concession from King Philip, the reservation to his own judgement of the sacred and perilous treasure of his predecessor's memory.

The Council, which had now resumed its sittings, was manifestly disinclined, not in this point alone, to submit to the absolute control of French influence. It asserted its independent dignity in the addresses to which it had listened on the reform of ecclesiastical abuses: it had shown a strong hierarchical spirit. No doubt beyond the sphere of Philip's power, beyond the pale of Ghibelline animosity, beyond that of the lower Franciscans, whose fanatical admiration of Coelestino had become implacable hatred to Boniface, the prosecution of the Pope's memory was odious. If it rested on any just grounds, it was an irreverent exposure of the nakedness of their common father; if groundless, a wanton and wicked sacrilege. When, therefore, three Cardinals, Richard of Sienna, master of the civil law, John of Namur, as eminent in theology, and Gentili, the most consummate decretalist, appeared in the Council to defend the orthodoxy and

*Defenders of
Boniface
before the
Council.*

* "Cui negotium erat cordi."

x "Unde depauperata est manus hospitalis, que se existimabat indolentia fieri."—S. Antoninus; see above.

y "Papa vero statim bona Templi infinito thesauro Fratibus vendidit hospitalis S. Joannis."—Hocsemius Hist. Pontific. Leoden.

holy life of Pope Boniface; when two Catalan Knights threw down their gauntlets, and declared themselves ready to maintain his innocence by wager of battle: Clement interposed not, as in the case of the Templars, any adjournment. He regarded not the confusion of the King and his partisans. The King was therefore obliged to submit to this absolute acquittal, either by positive decree; or, in default of the appearance of any accuser, of any opponent against the theologians or the knights, to accept an edict that no harm or prejudice should accrue to himself or his successors for the part which they had been compelled by duty and by zeal to take against Pope Boniface.*

The Council of Vienne had thus acquiesced in the determination of the first object for which it Acts of the Council of Vienne. had been summoned, the suppression of the Templars. The assembly listened with decent outward sympathy to the old wearisome account of the captivity of the Holy Land, and the progress of the Mohammedan arms in the East. But the crusading fire was burnt out; there was hardly a flash or gleam of enthusiasm.

* The vindication of the fame of Boniface by the Council of Vienne is disputed. F. Pagi, arguing from the fact that the affair was not included in the summons, or among the three subjects proposed for the consideration of the Council, that it was not brought before them. Raynaldus relies on the passage of Villani, on which he accumulates much irrelevant matter, without strengthening his cause. The statement in the text appears to me to reconcile all difficulties. It was, throughout, the policy of the Pope to keep this dangerous business entirely in his own hands; thus he had extorted with great dexterity and at great sacrifice from the King. Till he knew that he could trust the Council, he had no thought of permitting the Council to interfere (it was an unsafe precedent); but when sure of its temper, he was glad to take the Prelates' judgement in confirmation of his own: he thus at the same time maintained his own sole and superior right of judgement, and backed it, against the King, with the authority of the Council.

It seemed, however, disposed to enter with greater earnestness on the reformation of manners and discipline, and the suppression of certain dangerous dissidents from that discipline. On the former subject the Fathers heard with respectful favour two remarkable addresses. The first was from the Bishop of Mende, one of the assessors at the examination of the Templars; and this address raises the character of that prelate so highly, that his testimony on their condemnation is perhaps the most unfavourable evidence on record against them. The other came from a prelate of great gravity, learning, and piety, whose name has not survived. These addresses, however, which led to no immediate result, may come before us in a general view of the Christianity of this great epoch, the culmination of the Papal power under Boniface VIII., its rapid decline under the Popes at Avignon. So, too, the condemnation of that singular sect or offset of the Franciscans, the Fraticelli, will form part of the history of that body, which perhaps did more than any other sects in preparation of the Lollards, of Wycliffe, perhaps of the great Reformation, in the minds of the people throughout Christendom, as the disseminators of doctrines essentially, vitally, anti-Papal.

CHAPTER IV.

Henry of Luxemburg. Italy.

POPE CLEMENT—at the cost of much of the Papal dignity; at the cost of Christian mercy, even if the Templars, tortured and burned at the stake, were guilty; at the cost of truth and justice if they were innocent—had baffled the King of France, and had averted the fatal blow, the condemnation of Pope Boniface. Even of the spoils of the Templars he had rescued a large part, the whole landed property, out of the hands of the rapacious King; he had enriched himself, his death will hereafter show to what enormous amount. But the subtle Gascon had done greater service to Christendom by thwarting the views of the French monarch upon a predominance in the Western world, dangerous to her liberties and welfare. Never was Europe in greater peril of falling, if not under one sovereignty, under the dominion, and that the most tyrannical dominion, of one house. Philip was king indeed in France: in many of his worst acts of oppression the nation, the commonalty itself, had backed the King. Even the Church, so long as he plundered and trampled on others, was on his side. The greater Metropolitan Sees were filled with his creatures. Princes of the house of France sat on the thrones of Naples and Hungary. The feeble Edward II. of England was his son-in-law. The Empire, if obtained by Charles of Valois, had involved not merely the supreme

rule in Germany, but the mastery in Italy Clement would not have dared to refuse the imperial crown, and under such an Emperor where was the independence of the Italian cities? The Papal territory would have been held at his mercy.

The election of Henry of Luxemburg had redeemed Christendom from this danger. This election ^{Henry of Luxemburg.} had been managed with unrivalled skill by Peter Ashpalter, Archbishop of Mentz.^a This remarkable man (an unusual case) was not of noble birth; he had been bred a physician; it was said that he had rendered the Pope great service by advice concerning his health, and had thus acquired a strong influence over his mind. Archbishop Peter first contrived the elevation of Henry's brother to the Electoral See of Treves. Two of the lay electors, out of jealousy to- ^{Nov. 27, 1308.} wards the other competitors for the crown, were won over. Henry of Luxemburg was proclaimed at Frankfort. The new King of the Romans was at once a just, a religious, and a popular sovereign.^b He had put down the robbers, and exercised rigid but impartial justice in his own small territory. At the same time he was the most distinguished in arms. At the tournament no knight in Europe could unhorse Henry of Luxemburg. Soon after his elevation his indigent house was enriched and strengthened by the marriage of his son with the heiress of Bohemia.

The Pope had taken no ostensible part in the election. When Henry of Luxemburg sent an embassy

^a This is well told by Schmidt—*Geschichte der Deutschen*, vii. c. 4.

^b "Justus et religiosus et in armis strenuus fuit." Hocsemius, apud Cha-

peauville, *Hist. Pontif.* Leoden. See the description of his person in Albert Mussat. i. 18.

of nobles and great prelates to demand the imperial crown, Clement had no pretext, he had indeed no disposition, to refuse that which was in the common order of things. Philip might brood in secret over this politic attempt of the Pope after emancipation, yet had no right to take umbrage.

In a solemn diet at Spires Henry, King of the
Diet at Spires.
Aug 21, 1309. Romans, declared, amid universal acclamation, his resolution to descend into Italy to assert the imperial rights, and to receive the Cæsarean crown at Rome. Clement had never lost sight of the affairs of Italy: he was still Lord of Romagna, and drew his revenues from the Papal territory. But he had no Italian prepossessions. The Bishop of Rome had probably determined never to set his foot in that unruly city. His court was a court of French Cardinals, increased at each successive promotion. He had indeed interfered to save Pistoia from the cruel hands of Guelfic Florence; but Florence had treated his threatened anathema with scorn. Bologna, struck with interdict by the angry Legate for aiding Florence, had made indeed submission, but not till she had forced the Legate to an ignominious flight to save his life. Clement had maintained a violent contest with Venice for Ferrara. Venice had struck a vigorous blow by the seizure of Ferrara, and the contemptuous refusal to acknowledge the asserted rights of the Pope in that city. The Venetians scorned the interdict thundered against their whole territory by the Pope. Clement found a foe against whom he dared put forth all the terrors of his spiritual power. He prohibited all religious rites in Venice, declared the Doge and magistrates infamous, commanded all ecclesiastics to quit the territory except a few to baptise infants, and to administer extreme

The Pope's
policy.

unction to the dying. If they persisted in their contumacy, he declared the Doge Gradenigo degraded from his high office, and all estates of Venetians confiscate; kings were summoned to take up arms against them till they should restore the rights of the Church. The Venetians condescended to send an ambassador; but as to the restoration of Ferrara, they made no sign of concession. But Venice was vulnerable through her wealth; the Pope struck a blow at her vital part. She had factories, vast stores of rich merchandise in every great haven, in every distant land. The Pope issued a brief, summoning all kings, all rulers, all cities to plunder the forfeited merchandise of Venice, and to reduce the Venetians to slavery. The Pope's admonitions to peace, his warnings to kings and nations to abstain from unchristian injury to each other, had long lost their power. But a Papal licence or rather exhortation to plunder, to plunder peaceful and defenceless factories, was too tempting an act of obedience. Everywhere their merchandise was seized, their factories pillaged, their traders outraged.^c Venice quailed; yet it needed the utmost activity in the warlike Logato, the Cardinal Pelagru, at the head of troops from all quarters, to reconquer Ferrara. He slew six thousand men.

On a sudden Clement totally changed the immemorial policy of the Popes. He did not throw off, but he quietly let fall, the French alliance: he was in close league with the Emperor:^d the Pope became a Ghibeline. If the Papal and Imperial banners were not un-

^c "Quò de re data pluribus provincis ac Regibus imperii."—Raynaldus an. ann., with authorities.

Luxemburg, July 26, 1309. Also the Treaty dated at Lausanne September 11, 1310.—*Monumenta Germaniæ*, iv. 501.

^d See Clement's letter to Henry of

folded together, the Papal Legate was by the side of the Emperor. The refractory cities were menaced with the concurrent ban of the Empire and the excommunication of the Church.

Henry, rather more than a year after the Diet at
 Henry in Spires, descended upon Italy, but with no con-
 siderable German force,* to achieve that in
 which had been discomfited the Othos, Henrys, and
 Fredericks. Guelfs and Ghibellines watched his move-
 ments with unquiet jealousy. He assumed a lofty supe-
 riority to all factious views.† The cities Turin, Asti,
 Vercelli, Novara, opened their gates.‡ Henry rein-
 stated the exiled Guelfs in Ghibelline, the
 Ghibellines in Guelfic cities. He approached
 Milan. Guido della Torre, the head of the ruling
 Guelfic faction, had sent a message to the King at
 Spires, "he would lead him with a falcon on his wrist,
 as on a pleasure-party, through all Lombardy." Guido
 was now irresolute. The Archbishop of Milan,
 the nephew of Guido, but his mortal enemy,
 entreated the King's good offices for the release of three
 of his kindred, imprisoned by Della Torre. King Henry
 issued his orders; Guido refused to obey. Yet Milan
 did not close her gates on the King. Guido occupied
 the palace of the communalty; he would not dismiss his
 armed guard of one thousand men. Besides this, he
 had at his command in one street ten thousand men,

* Ferretus Vicentinus gives 5000 Germans.

† "Cujusquam cum subjectis pac-
 tionis impatientis, Gibelenge Guelfeve
 partium mentionem abhorrens, cuncta
 absoluto amplectens imperio,"—Alb.
 Mussat. i. 18.

‡ See *Iter Italicum* by Henry; In-
 favourite counsellor. The Bishop of
 Buttronto gives a lively account of all
 his march, especially of the Bishop's
 own personal adventures. It has been re-
 printed (after Reuber and Muratori) by
 Boshmer.—*Fontes Rer. German.* i. 69.

not, he averred, against the King, but against his enemy, the Archbishop. Henry lodged in the Archbishop's palace, and there kept his Christmas. On the day after, peace was sworn between Guido della Torre, his nephew the Archbishop, and ^{Jan. 5,} Matteo Visconti: they exchanged the kiss of peace.¹ On the Epiphany Henry was crowned with the Iron Crown of Italy, not at Monza, but in the Ambrosian Church at Milan; the people wept tears of joy. Guido gave up the palace of the commonalty to the King. All the cities of Lombardy were present by their Syndics; all took the oath of allegiance except Genoa and Venice, who nevertheless acknowledged the supremacy of the King.¹ Henry calmly pursued his work of pacification. He placed Vicars in the cities from the Alps to Bologna, and forced them to admit the exiles. Como received the Guelfs, the Ghibellines entered Brescia. Mantua admitted the Ghibellines, Piacenza the Guelfs. Verona alone obstinately refused to receive Count Boniface and the Guelfs: her strong walls defied the Emperor. In Milan the leaders of the factions vied in their offerings to Henry. William di Posterla proposed a vote of fifty thousand florins, but added a donative to the Empress Guido della Torre outbid his rival: "We are a great and wealthy city; one hundred thousand is not too much for so noble a sovereign." The Germans were alienated from the parsimonious Viscontis; Guido, they averred, was the Emperor's friend; but it was shrewdly suspected that the crafty leader foresaw that Milan,

¹ "Amicabiliter, utinam fideliter osculati."—*Iter. Ital.*

¹ "They said many things to excuse themselves from swearing" (writes the Bishop of Buthronte), "which I do not

recollect, excepting that they (the Venetians) are a quintessence, and will belong neither to the Church nor to the Emperor, nor to the sea nor to the land."—*Iter Italicum*, p. 893.

when the tax came to be levied, would rise to shake off the burthen. The Emperor, to secure the city in his absence, demanded that fifty of the great nobles and leaders, chosen half from the Guelfs, half from the Ghibellines, should accompany him to Rome to do honour to his coronation. The Guelfs were to name twenty-five Ghibellines, the Ghibellines twenty-five Guelfs. But this mode of election failed; neither Guido nor Visconti would quit the city. Guido alleged

Feb. 12.

ill health; the King's physician declared the excuse false. But the assessment of this vast

sum, though the Germans were astonished at the ease with which much had been paid, inflamed the people.

Insurrection
in Milan.

Frays broke out between the Germans and the Milanese; proclamations were issued, forbidding the Italians to bear arms. On a sudden a cry was heard, "Death to the Germans! Peace between the Lord Guido and the Lord Matteo!" Visconti was seized, carried before the King, and dismissed unharmed. The Germans rushed to arms; they were joined by Visconti's faction; much slaughter, much plunder ensued.* Guido della Torre fled; his palace fortress was surprised and ransacked: great stores of military weapons were found, arrows tipped with Greek fire, and balists.

No sooner was Milan heard to be in insurrection, than Crema, Cremona, Lodi, Brescia, rose. The first were speedily subdued; Cremona severely punished.

May 13, 1311.

Siege of
Brescia.

Brescia alone stood an obstinate siege. The Emperor's brother Waleran fell in the trenches: many Germans were hanged upon the walls.

* "Multi mortui et vulnerati, si justè, Deus erit." So writes the pious Bishop, who had apprehended and, as he says, saved the life of, Visconti.

The new alliance between the Emperor and the Pope was here ostentatiously proclaimed. Two of the cardinals appointed to crown the Emperor, the Bishops of St. Sabina and of Ostia, appeared under the walls of Brescia. The gates flew open: they passed the streets amid acclamations—"Long live our Mother the Church; long live the Pope and the Holy Cardinals." The Cardinal of Ostia addressed the commonalty in a lofty harangue. He sternly reproved them for not having received that blessed son of the Church, Henry King of the Romans, who came in the name of the Lord: "They were in insurrection against the ordinance of Almighty God, against the monitions of the Pope: they must look for no better fate than befell Sodom and Gomorrah." The Captain of the people answered in their name—"They were ready to obey the Pope and a lawful Emperor. Henry was no emperor, but a spoiler, who expelled the Guelfs from the cities, and gave them up to the tyranny of the Ghibellines; he was reviving the schism of the Emperor Frederick." The Cardinals withdrew for a time in ignominious silence. Brescia still held out: Henry urged the Cardinals to issue a sentence of excommunication. "For excommunication," was the reply, "the Italians care nothing. How have the Florentines treated that of the Cardinal of Ostia, the Bolognese that of Cardinal Napoleon, those of Milan that of the Lord Pelagius?"^m Famine at length reduced the obstinate town. They consented to the mediation of the Cardinals, and Henry entered Brescia. The want of money led him to compound for the treason

^m Albert Mussato apud Muratori, *R. I. S.* I have endeavoured to reconcile this account with the *Iter Itali-* cum. I understand the same fact to be alluded to, page 200: "*Domini Cardinales de pace laboraverunt.*"

by a mulct of 70,000 florins. Henry's poverty compelled him to other acts, ignominious, even treacherous, as it seemed to his most loyal counsellors.^a

Henry advanced to Genoa: the city submitted in the amplest manner. But no sooner had the
 Sept. 18-21. Emperor left Lombardy than a new Guelfic league sprung up behind him. Throughout Italy, the Guelfs, more Papalist than the Pope, disclaimed the Emperor, though under the escort of cardinal legates. At Genoa, died his Queen, Margarita. To Genoa came ambassadors from the head of the Guelfs, Robert King of Naples. Negotiations were commenced for a marriage between the houses of Luxemburg and Naples; but Robert demanded the office of Senator of Rome, and before terms could be concluded, news arrived that John, brother of King Robert, was in Rome with an armed force. Henry moved to Ghibelline Pisa; he was welcomed with joy. In the mean time Guelfic Florence not merely would not admit Pandulph Savelli, the Pope's Notary, and the Bishop of Buthronto, Henry's ambassadors; they threatened to seize them, as loaded with gold to bribe the Ghibellines to insurrection. The ambassadors had many wild adventures in the Apennines, were plundered, in peril of captivity. Some Tuscan cities, more Tuscan lords, swore allegiance to the Emperor, whether from loyalty or hatred of Florence. The ambassadors arrived before Rome.^b The

^a "I protested, but protested in vain" (writes the Bishop of Buthronto), "against five acts of my master. To the doubtful Philip of Savoy he granted, for a loan of 25,000 florins, the lordship over Pavia, Vercelli, Novara: to Matteo Visconti, for 50,000, that of Milan: to Gu'berto di Corra-
 gio, the Guelfic tyrant of Parma, for an unknown sum, that of Reggio: to Can di Verona, who obstinately refused to admit a single Guelf, that of Verona: to Passerino, that of Mantua."
 —*Iter Italicum*, p. 98.
^b This is the most curious part of the *Iter Italicum*.

city was occupied by John of Naples. He was strong enough to maintain himself in the city, not strong enough to keep down the Imperialists. There was parley, delay, exchange of demands. John insisted on fortifying the Ponte Molle. To the demand, among others, of co-operation in reconciling the rival houses of Orsini and Colonna, he sternly answered, "The Colonnas are my enemies; with them I will have neither truce nor treaty." He at length hurled defiance against the Emperor.

Henry himself set out from Pisa, and advanced towards Rome at the head of two thousand horse. Henry advances on Rome. With King Robert of Naples it was neither peace nor war. Prince John still held the Ponte Molle. On the appearance of King Henry he was summoned to withdraw his troops. He withdrew, he said, "for his own ends—not at the Emperor's command." The Germans charged over the bridge; a tower still manned by Neapolitans hurled down missiles; it was with difficulty stormed. The Pope's Emperor, with the Cardinals commissioned by the Pope to crown him, entered Rome: he occupied, with the Ghibellines, the city on one side of the Tiber; the Capitol was forced to submit. Beyond the Tiber were John of Naples and the Guelfic Orsini. Neither had strength to dispossess the other. But St. Peter's was in the power of the enemy. The magnificent ceremonial, which Pope Clement had drawn out at great length for the coronation of Henry, could not take place. He must submit to receive June 29, 1312. the crown with humbler pomp in the Church of St. John Lateran. The inglorious coronation took place on the festival of St. Peter and St. Paul.

The heats of Rome compelled the Emperor to retire to Tivoli. A year of war ensued: Florence placed

herself at the head of the anti-Imperialist League.

July 20. Henry, having made a vain attempt to surprise Florence, retired to Pisa. There he pronounced

the ban of the Empire against Florence and the contu-

Feb 12, 1313. macious cities; and against Robert of Naples, whom he declared, as a rebellious vassal, de-

posed from his throne. The ban of the Empire had no more terror than the excommunication of the Pope.

Henry awaited forces from Germany to open again the campaign: his magnanimous character struck even his adversaries. "He was a man," writes the Guelf Villani, "never depressed by adversity, never in prosperity elated with pride, or intoxicated with joy."

But the end of his career drew on. He had now advanced at the head of an army which his enemies dared not meet in the field, towards Sienna. He rode still, seemingly in full vigour and activity. But the fatal air of Rome had smitten his strength. A carbuncle had formed under his knee; injudicious remedies inflamed his vitiated blood. He died at Buonconvento

Aug. 24, 1313 in the midst of his awe-struck army, on the Festival of St. Bartholomew. Rumours of foul practice, of course, spread abroad: a Dominican monk was said to have administered poison in the Sacrament, which he received with profound devotion. His body was carried in sad state, and splendidly interred at Pisa.

So closed that empire, in which, if the more factious and vulgar Ghibellines beheld their restoration to their native city, their triumph, their revenge, their sole administration of public affairs, the noble Ghibellinism of Dante^p foresaw the establishment of a great universal

^p Read first Dante's rapturous letter | Luxembourg (the Latin original is lost),
(in Italian) to the princes and people | Fraticelli's edition, *Opere*, Min. III. p.
of Italy before the descent of Henry of | 219. "Non riluce in maravigliosa

monarchy necessary to the peace and civilisation of mankind. The ideal sovereign of Dante's famous treatise on Monarchy was Henry of Luxemburg. Neither Dante nor his time can be understood but through this treatise. The attempt of the Pope to raise himself to a great Pontifical monarchy had manifestly, ignominiously failed: the Ghibelline is neither amazed nor distressed at this event. It is now the turn of the Imperialist to unfold his noble vision. "An universal monarchy is absolutely necessary for the welfare of the world;" and this is part of his singular reasoning—"Peace" (says the weary exile, the man worn out in cruel strife, the wanderer from city to city, each of those cities more fiercely torn by faction than the last), "universal peace is the first blessing of mankind. The angels sang not riches or pleasures, but peace on earth: peace the Lord bequeathed to his disciples. For peace One must rule. Mankind is most like God when at unity, for God is One; therefore under a monarchy. Where there is parity there must be strife; where strife, judgement; the judge must be a third party intervening with supreme authority." Without monarchy can be no justice, nor even liberty; for Dante's² monarch is no arbitrary despot, but a constitutional sovereign; he is the Roman law impersonated in the Emperor; a monarch who should leave all the nations, all the free Italian cities, in possession of their rights and old municipal institutions.

affetto Iddio avere predestinato il Romano principe?" The Pope is now on the Imperial side, and Dante is conciliatory even to an Avignonese Pope. Nor omit, secondly, the furious letter to Henry himself, almost reproaching him with leaving wicked Florence unchastised.—*Ibid.* p. 230.

² "Et humanum genus, totissimum liberum, optime se habet."

But to this monarchy of the world the Roman people has an inherent, indefeasible right. The Saviour was born when the world was at peace under the Roman sway.* Dante seizes and applies the texts, which foreshow the peaceful dominion of Christianity, to the Empire of old Rome. Rome assumed that empire of right, not of usurpation. The Romans were the noblest of people by their descent from Æneas, the noblest of men. The rise of the Republic was one continual miracle: the Ancile, the repulse of the Gauls, Clelia, all were miracles in the highest sense.[†] That holy, pious, and glorious people sacrificed its own advantage to the common good. It ruled the world by its beneficence. All that the most ardent Christian could assert of the best of the Saints, Dante attributes to the older Romans. The great examples of human virtue are Cincinnatus, Fabricius, Camillus, Decius, Cato. The Roman people are by nature predestined to rule: he cites the irrefragable authority of Virgil.[‡] There are two arguments which strangely mingle with these. Rome had won the empire of the world by wager of battle. God, in the great ordeal, had adjudged the triumph to Rome: he had awarded to her the prize, universal, indefeasible monarchy." Still further, "Our Lord condescended to be put to death under Pilate, the viceroy of Tiberius Cæsar; by that he acknowledged the

* "Quare fremuerunt gentes, reges adversantur Domino suo et uncto sub Romano Principe."

† "Quod etiam pro Romano Imperio perficiendo, miranda Deus pertenderet, illustrium authorum testimonio comprobatur." The authors are Livy and Lucan.

‡ "Tu regere imperio populos, Romana, memento."

§ "Nullum dubium est quin prævalentia in athletis pro imperio mundi certantibus, Dei iudicium est sequuta. Romanus populus cunctis athletizantibus pro imperio mundi prævaluit."—p. 100. "Quod per duellum acquiratur jure acquiritur."

lawfulness of the jurisdiction, therefore the jurisdiction is of God."* But while all this argument of Dante shows the irresistible magic power still possessed over the imagination by the mere name of Rome, how strongly does it illustrate not only the coming days of Rienzi, but the strength, too, which the Papal power had derived from this indelible awe, this unquestioning admission that the world owed allegiance to Rome! Dante proceeds to prove that the monarchy, the Roman monarchy, is held directly of God, not of any Vicar or minister of God. He sweeps away with contemptuous hand all the later Decretals. He admits the Holy Scripture, the first Councils, the early Doctors, and S. Augustine. He spurns the favourite texts of the sun and moon as typifying the Papacy and the Empire, the worship of the Magi, the two swords, the donation of Constantine. He asserts Christ to be the only Rock of the Church. The examples of authority assumed by Popes over Emperors, he confronts with precedents of authority used by Emperors over Popes. Dante denies not, he believes with the fervour of a devout Catholic, the co-ordinate supremacy of the Church and the Empire, of the Pope and the temporal monarch; but like all the Ghibellines, like the Fraticelli among the lower orders, like many other true believers, almost worshippers of the successor of St. Peter, he would absolutely, rigidly, entirely confine him to his spiritual functions; with this life the Pontiff had no concern, eternal life was in his power and arbitration alone.†

* We find even the startling sentence, "*Si Romanum Imperium de jure non fuit, peccatum alicui in Christo non fuit punitum.*"

† This is the key to Dante's Impe-

rialism and Papalism. Hence in the lowest pit of hell, the two traitors to Cæsar are on either side of the traitor to Christ. "*Bruto, Iscariote, e Cassio.*" Hence both his fierce Ghibelline

Italy, at the death of Henry of Luxemburg, fell back into her old anarchy. Clement, it is true, laid claim to the Empire during the vacancy, but it was an idle and despised boast.* The Transalpine Clement was succeeded by other Transalpine Popes; but the confederacy between the Pope and the Emperor broke up for ever at the death of Henry.

denunciations of the avarice and pride of Boniface, and his indignation at the violation of the sanctity of Christ's Vicar at Anagni. Throughout, the imperial authority is the first necessity of Italy—

"Ahi gente, ch'è dovresti esser devota,
E lasciar seder Cesar nella sella,
Se bene intendi ciò ch'è Dio ti noia"
Purgat. vi. 91

This is followed by the magnificent apostrophe to Albert of Austria, whose guilt in neglecting Italy is not only

avenged on his own posterity, but on his successor, Henry of Luxemburg,—

"Vieni a veder la tua Roma, che piagne
Vedova, e sola, e di è notte chiama,
Cesare mio, perchè non m'accompagne"

—Compare Foscolo, *Discorso*, p. 223.

* "Nos tam ex superioritate quam ad imperium non est dubium nos habere, quam ex potestate, in qua, vacante Imperio, Imperatori succedimus."

—Clement. Pastoral. Muratori, *Ann.* sub ann. 1314.

CHAPTER V.

The End of Du Molay, of Pope Clement, of King Philip.

THE end of Clement himself and of Clement's master, the King of France, drew near. The Pope had been compelled to make still larger concessions to the King. Philip's annexation of the Imperial city, Lyons, and the extinction of the rights or claims of the Archbishop to an independent jurisdiction, were vainly encountered by remonstrance. From this time Lyons became a city of the kingdom of France.

But the Pope and the King must be preceded into the realm of darkness and to the judgement seat of heaven by other victims. The tragedy of the Templars had not yet drawn to its close. The four great dignitaries of the Order, the Grand Master Du Molay, Guy the Commander of Normandy, son of the Dauphin of Auvergne, the Commander of Aquitaine Godfrey de Gonaville, the great Visitor of France Hugues de Peraud, were still pining in the royal dungeons. It was necessary to determine on their fate. The King and the Pope were now equally interested in burying the affair for ever in silence and oblivion. So long as these men lived, uncondemned, undoomed, the Order was not extinct. A commission was named; the Cardinal Archbishop of Albi, with two other Cardinals, two monks, the Cistercian Arnold Novelli, and Arnold de Fargis, nephew of Pope Clement, the Dominican Nicolas de Freveauville, akin to the house of Marigny, formerly the

King's confessor. With these the Archbishop of Sens sat in judgement, on the Knights' own former confessions. The Grand Master and the rest were found guilty, and were to be sentenced to perpetual imprisonment.^a

A scaffold was erected before the porch of Notre Dame. On one side appeared the two Cardinals; on the other the four noble prisoners, in chains, Prisoners brought up for sentence. under the custody of the Provost of Paris. Six years of dreary imprisonment had passed over their heads; of their valiant brethren the most valiant had been burned alive; the recreants had purchased their lives by confession: the Pope in a full Council had condemned and dissolved the Order. If a human mind, a mind like that of Du Molay, not the most stubborn, could be broken by suffering and humiliation, it must have yielded to this long and crushing imprisonment. The Cardinal-Archbishop of Albi ascended a raised platform: he read the confessions of the Knights, the proceedings of the Court; he enlarged on the criminality of the Order, on the holy justice of the Pope, and the devout, self-sacrificing zeal of the King; he was proceeding to the final, the fatal sentence. At that instant the Grand Master advanced; his gesture implored silence: judges and people gazed in awe-struck apprehension. In a calm, clear voice Du Molay spake:

Speech of Du Molay. "Before heaven and earth, on the verge of death, where the least falsehood bears like an intolerable weight upon the soul, I protest that we have richly deserved death, not on account of any heresy or sin of which ourselves or our Order have been guilty, but because we have yielded, to save our lives, to the

^a "Muro et carceri perpetuo retrudendi,"—Continuat. Nangis.

seductive words of the Pope and of the King: and so by our confessions brought shame and ruin on our blameless, holy, and orthodox brotherhood."

The Cardinals stood confounded; the people could not suppress their profound sympathy. The assembly was hastily broken up; the Provost was commanded to conduct the prisoners back to their dungeons. "To-morrow we will hold further counsel."

But on the moment that the King heard these things, without a day's delay, without the least consultation with the ecclesiastical authorities, he ^{Death of Du Molay.} ordered them to death as relapsed heretics. In the island on the Seine, where now stands the statue of Henry IV., between the King's garden on one side and the convent of the Augustinian monks on the other, the two pyres were raised (two out of the four had shrunk back into their ignoble confession). It was the hour of vespers when these two aged and noble men were led out to be burned: they were tied each to the stake. The flames kindled dully and heavily; the wood, hastily piled up, was green or wet; or, in cruel mercy, the tardiness was designed that the victims might have time, while the fire was still curling round their extremities, to recant their bold recantation. But there was no sign, no word of weakness. Du Molay implored that the image of the Mother of God might be held up before him,^b and his hands unchained, that he might clasp them in prayer. Both, as the smoke rose to their lips, as the fire crept up to the vital parts, continued solemnly to aver the innocence, the Catholic faith of

^b "Et je vous prie
Que de vers le visage Marie,
Dont notre Seigneur Christ fut nez,
Mon visage vous me tornez."

Godfrey de Paris.

the Order. The King himself sat and beheld,^a it might seem without remorse, this hideous spectacle; the words of Du Molay might have reached his ears. But the people looked on with far other feelings. Stupor kindled into admiration; the execution was a martyrdom; friars gathered up their ashes and bones and carried them away, hardly by stealth, to consecrated ground; they became holy reliques.¹ The two who wanted courage to die pined away their miserable life in prison.

The wonder and the pity of the times which immediately followed, arrayed Du Molay not only in the robes of the martyr, but gave him the terrible language of a prophet. "Clement, iniquitous and cruel judge, I summon thee within forty days to meet me before the throne of the Most High."^a According to some accounts this fearful sentence included the King, by whom, if uttered, it might have been heard. The earliest allusion to this awful speech does not contain that striking particularity, which, if part of it, would be fatal to its credibility, the precise date of Clement's death. It was not till the year after that Clement and King Philip passed to their account. The poetic relation of Godfrey of Paris¹ simply states that

^a "Ambo rege spectante," Zantfliet. He adds that he had this from an eye-witness — "qui hæc vidit scriptori testimonium præbuit." The Canon of Liège is said to have been born towards the end of the fourteenth century. Could he have conversed with an eye-witness of this scene on March 11, 1313? But many of these chronicles are those of the convent rather than of the individual monks. This was continued to 1492. See above.

¹ Villani (S. Antoninus as usual

copies Villani), "E nota che la notte appresso che 'l detto maestro e 'l compagno furono martorizzati, per frati religiosi le loro corpora e ossa come reliquie sante furono raccolte e portate via in sacri luogi."

^a Ferratus Vicentinus.

¹ "S'en vandra en brief temps meschia
Sur ceiz qui nous dampnent a tort
Dieu en vengera nostre mort,
Seignors, dit li, sachiez sans iäre,
Que tous ceiz qui nous sont conträre

Pe nous en urent a soupir."

Godfrey de Paris.

Du Molay declared that God would revenge their death on their unrighteous judges. The rapid fate of these two men during the next year might naturally so appal the popular imagination, as to approximate more closely the prophecy and its accomplishment. At all events it betrayed the deep and general feeling of the cruel wrong inflicted on the Order; while the unlamented death of the Pope, the disastrous close of Philip's reign, and the disgraceful crimes which attainted the honour of his family, seemed as declarations of Heaven as to the innocence of their noble victims.⁵

The health of Clement V. had been failing for some time. From his Court, which he held at Car-
Death of
Clement.
April 20, 1314
 pentras, he set out in hopes to gain strength from his native air at Bordeaux. He had hardly crossed the Rhône when he was seized with mortal sickness at Roquemaure. The Papal treasure was seized by his followers, especially his nephew; his remains were treated with such utter neglect that the torches set fire to the catafalque under which he lay, not in state. His body, covered only with a single sheet, all that his rapacious retinue had left to shroud their forgotten master, was half burned (not, like those of the Templars, his living body) before alarm was raised. His ashes were borne back to Carpentras and solemnly interred.⁶

Clement left behind him evil fame. He died shamefully rich. To his nephew (nepotism had begun to

⁵ Besides other evidence, a singular document but recently brought to light establishes the date of the execution of Du Molay, March 11, 1313. The Abbot and Convent of St. Germain aux Prés claimed jurisdiction over the island where the execution took place.

They complained of the execution as an infringement on their rights. The Parliament of Paris decided in their favour.—*Les Olim*, published by M. Beugnot, Documents Inédits, t. ii. p. 589.

⁶ Franciscus Pepinus in *Chronico*.

prevail in its baneful influence) he bequeathed not less than 300,000 golden florins, under the pretext of succour to the Holy Land. He had died still more wealthy, but that his wealth was drained by more disgraceful prodigality. It was generally believed that the beautiful Brunisand de Foix, Countess of Talleyrand Perigord, was the Pope's mistress: to her he was boundlessly lavish, and her influence was irresistible even in ecclesiastical matters. Rumour ran that her petitions to the lustful Pontiff were placed upon her otherwise unveiled bosom. Italian hatred of a Transalpine Pope, Guelfic hatred of a Ghibelline Pope, may have lent too greedy ear to these disreputable reports; but the large mass of authorities is against the Pope; in his favour hardly more than suspicious silence.¹

Yet was it the ambition of Clement to be one of the ecclesiastical legislators of Christendom. He had hoped that his new book of Decretals would have been enrolled during his life with those of his predecessors. It was published on the 12th of March, but the death of Clement took place before it had assumed its authority.

From Boniface VIII. to Clement V. was indeed a precipitous fall. After this time subtle policy rather than conscious power became the ruling influence of the Papedom. The Popes had ceased absolutely to command, but they had not ceased to a great extent to govern. Nor in these new arts of government was Clement without considerable skill and address. Notwithstanding his abandonment of Rome, his dangerous neighbourhood to the King of France, his general subserviency to his hard master, his doubtful, at least, if not utterly

¹ Villani, ix. 58. The Guelfic Villani. "Contra cujus pudicitiam fama laboravit."—Albert Mussat, p. 608. Hist. Languedoc, xxix. 35, 138.

disreputable personal character, his looseness and his rapacity, he had succeeded in saving the fame of his predecessor, in averting the fatal blow to the Popedom of which it had been impossible to conceive the consequences—he had prevented the condemnation of a Pope as a notorious heretic and a man of criminal life—his disinterment, on which Philip at one time insisted, and the public burning of his body. Clement succeeded by calm, stubborn determination, by watching his time, and wisely calculating the amount of sacrifice which would content the resentful and vengeful King. His other great service to Christendom was the preservation of Europe from the absolute domination of France. If indeed Henry of Luxemburg had established the imperial dominion in Italy in the absence of the Pope, it is difficult to speculate on the results. Clement himself took alarm: he yielded promptly to the demands of the King of France, and inhibited the war waged against Philip's kinsman, King Robert of Naples, as against a vassal of the Church. He looked with distrust on Henry's league with the anti-papal house of Arragon, with Frederick of Sicily. The Pope might have been constrained ere long to become again a Guelf.

Philip the Fair survived Pope Clement only a few months.^k Philip, at forty-six, was an old and worn-out man. Though he had raised the royal power to such unprecedented height; though he had laid the foundation of free institutions, not to be developed to maturity; though successful in most of his wars; though he had curbed, at least, the rebellious Flemings, and added provinces to his realm, above all the great city of Lyons; though in close alliance, by marriage, with

^k Clement died April 20, Philip Nov. 29, 1314.

England; though he had crushed the Templars, and obtained much wealth from his share of the spoil; though the Church of France was filled in its highest sees by his creatures; though the Pope was under his tutelage, most of the Cardinals his subjects: yet the last years of his reign were years of difficulty, disaster, and ignominy. His financial embarrassments, notwithstanding his financial iniquities, grew worse and worse. The spoils of the Templars were soon dissipated. His tampering with the coin of the kingdom became more reckless, more directly opposed to all true economy, more burthensome and hateful to his subjects, less lucrative to the Crown.^m The Lombards, the Jews, had been again admitted into the realm, again to be plundered, again expelled. The magnificent festival at Paris, where he received the King of England with unexampled splendour, consummated his bankruptcy.

But upon his house there had fallen what wounded the haughty, chivalrous, and feudal feelings of the times more than did the violation of high Christian morals. The wives of his three sons, the handsomest men of their day, were at the same time accused of adultery, and with men of low birth. The paramours of Margu rite and of Blanche, daughters of Otho IV. and the wives of Louis and Charles, the elder and younger sons of Philip, were two Norman gentlemen, Philip and Walter de Launoi. Confession, true or false, was wrung from these men by torture; but confession only made their doom more dreadful. They were mutilated, flayed alive, hung up by the most sensitive parts to die a lingering death.ⁿ Many persons,

^m Compare Sismondi.

ⁿ Contin. Nangis, p. 88. Chroniq. de St. Denys, p. 146.

men and women, of high and low rank, were tortured to admit criminal connivance in the crimes of the princesses: some were sewed up in sacks and thrown into the river, some burned alive, some hanged. The atrocity of the punishments shows how deeply the disgrace sank into the heart of the King, himself too cold and severe to indulge such weaknesses. Margu rite and Blanche were shaven and shut up in Ch teau-Gaillard. Margu rite was afterwards strangled, that her husband might marry again: Blanche divorced on the plea of parentage. Her splendid dowry alone saved the life, if not the honour, of Jane of Burgundy, the wife of the second son, Philip of Poitiers. She had brought him the sovereignty of Franche Comt , which he would forfeit by her death or divorce. Jane was shut up; no paramour was produced: the Parliament of Paris declared her guiltless, and Philip received her again to all the dignity of her station.

In this attainder to the honour of the royal house of France some beheld the vengeance of Heaven for the sacrilegious outrage at Anagni; others for the iniquitous persecution of the Templars.*

Philip had fallen into great languor, yet was able to amuse himself with hunting. A wild boar ran under the legs of his horse, and overthrew him. He was carried to Fontainebleau, and died with all outward demonstrations of piety. The persecutor of Popes, the persecutor of the great religious Order of Knighthood, had always shown the most submissive reverence for the offices of the Church; he had been

* "Forse per lo peccato commesso per loro padre, nella presura di Papa Bonifazio, come il Vescovo d' Anagnina profettizz , e forse per quello, che adoper  ne' Templieri, come   detto addietro."—G. Villani, ix. 6

most rigid in the proscription of heresy or of suspected heresy. The fires had received one more victim, Margu rite de la Porrette, who had written a book of too ardent piety on the love of God.* Philip died, giving the sagest advice to his sons of moderation, mercy, devotion to the Church; lessons which he seemed to lull himself to a quiet security that he had ever fulfilled to the utmost.†

It is singular, even in these dark times, to see Christianity still strong at her extremities, still making conquests of Heathenism. The Order of the Knights Templars had come to a disastrous and ignominious end. The Knights of St. John or of the Hospital, now that the Holy Land was irrecoverably lost, had planted themselves in Rhodes, as a strong outpost and bulwark of Christendom, which they held for some centuries against the Turco-Mohammedan power; and, when it fell, almost buried themselves in its ruins. At the same time, less observed, less envied, less famous, the Teutonic Order was winning to itself from heathendom (more after the example of Charlemagne than of Christ's Apostles) a kingdom, of which the Order was for a time to be the Sovereign, and which hereafter, conjoined with one of the great German Principalities, was to become an important state, the kingdom of Prussia.

* Continuat. Nangis. Sismondi, *Hist. des Fran ais*, ix. p. 288.

† After the death of Philip's Queen, unless belied one of the most lustful of women, Guichard Bishop of Troyes was arrested on suspicion of having poisoned her. He was tried before the Archbishop of Sens and the Bishops

of Orleans and Auxerre. The proofs failed, but the Bishop was kept in prison. Nor, though another man accused himself of the crime, was the Bishop reinstated in his see.—Contin. Nangis, p. 81. Compare Mich let, *Hist. des Fran ais*, vol. iv, c. 5.

The Orders of the Temple and of St. John owed, the former their foundation, the latter their power and wealth, to noble Knights. They were military and aristocratic brotherhoods, which hardly deigned to receive, at least in their higher places, any but those of gentle birth. The first founders of the Teutonic Order were honest, decent, and charitable burghers of Lubeck and Bremen. After the disasters which followed the death of Frederick Barbarossa, when the army was wasting away with disease and famine before Acre, these merchants from the remote shores of the Baltic ran up the sails of their ships into tents to receive the sick and starving. They were joined by the brethren of a German Hospital, which had been before founded in Jerusalem, and had been permitted by the contemptuous compassion of Saladin to remain for some time in the city. Duke Frederick of Swabia saw the advantage of a German Order, both to maintain the German interests and to relieve the necessities of German pilgrims. Their first house was in Acre.*

But it was not till the Mastership of Herman of Salza that the Teutonic Order emerged into distinction. That remarkable man has been seen adhering in unshaken fidelity to the fortunes of the Emperor Frederick II.;* and Frederick no doubt more highly honoured the Teutonic Order because it was commanded by Herman of Salza, and more highly esteemed Herman of Salza as Master of an Order which alone in Palestine did not thwart, oppose, insult the German Emperor. It is the noblest testimony to the wisdom, unimpeached virtue, honour, and religion of Herman of Salza, that the suc-

* Compare Voigt, *Geschichte Preussens*, and authorities.

* See vol. vi. p. 239.

cessive Popes, Honorius III., Gregory IX., Innocent IV., who agreed with Frederick in nothing else, with whom attachment to Frederick was enmity and treason to the Church or absolute impiety, nevertheless vied with the Emperor in the honour and respect paid to the Master Herman, and in grants and privileges to his Teutonic Knights.

The Order, now entirely withdrawn, as become useless, from the Holy Land, had found a new sphere for their crusading valour: the subjugation and conversion of the heathen nations to the south-east and the east of the Baltic.¹ Theirs was a complete Mohammedan invasion, the Gospel or the sword. The avowed object was the subjugation, the extermination if they would not be subjugated, of the Prussian, Lithuanian, Esthonian, and other kindred or conterminous tribes, because they were infidels. They had refused to listen to the pacific preachers of the Gospel, and pacific preachers had not been wanting. Martyrs to the faith had fallen on the dreary sands of Prussia, in the forests and morasses of Livonia and Esthonia.

The Pope and the Emperor concurred in this alone—in their right to grant away all lands, it might be kingdoms, won from unbelievers. The charter of Frederick II. runs in a tone of as haughty supremacy as those of Honorius, Gregory, or Innocent IV.*

¹ Pomerania had been converted in a more Christian manner in the twelfth century, chiefly by the exertions of Bishop Otho of Bamberg, whose romantic life, with that of his convert, Prince Mitzlav, has been well wrought by my nephew, the Rev. R. Milman, into a Romance (I wish it had been History, or even Legend). I trust this

note is pardonable nepotism. See also Mone, *Nordische Heidenthum*, or Schroeck, xxv. p. 221, &c., for a more historical view.

* "*Auctoritatem eidem magistro concedimus, terram Prussie cum viribus domis, et totis conatibus invadendi, concedentes et confirmantes eidem magistro, successoribus ejus, et domui.*"

These tribes had each their religion, the dearer to them as the charter of their liberty. It was wild, no doubt superstitious and sanguinary.* They are said to have immolated human victims.† They burned slaves, like other valuables, on the graves of their departed great men.

For very many years the remorseless war went on. The Prussians rose and rose again in revolt; but the inexhaustible Order pursued its stern course. It became the perpetual German Crusade. Wherever there was a martial and restless noble, who found no adventure, or no enemy, in his immediate neighbourhood; wherever the indulgences and rewards of this religious act, the fighting for the Cross, were wanted, without the toil, peril, and cost of a journey to the Holy Land, of the old but now decried, now unpopular Crusade; whoever desired more promptly and easily to wash off his sins in the blood of the unbeliever, rushed into the Order, and either enrolled himself as a Knight, or served for a time under the banner. There is hardly a princely or a noble house in Germany which did not furnish some of its illustrious names to the roll of Teutonic Knights.

So at length, by their own good swords, and what

sue in perpetuum, tam prædictam terram quam a præscripto ducis recipiat ut promissit, et quancunque aliam dabit. Necnon terram, quam in partibus Prussie, Deo favente, conquistat, velut *potus et debitum jus Imperii*, in montibus, planitie, fluminibus, nemoribus et in mari, ut eam liberam sine omni servitio et exactione teneant et immunem. Et nulli respondere proinde tenentur."—Grant of Frederick II.,

Voigt, *Geschichte Preussens*, iii. p. 440.

* Compare Mone, i. 79.

† A burgher of Magdeburg was burned as a sacrifice to their gods by the Nantaulian Prussians. The lot had fallen on him. A Nantaulian chief begged him off, as having enjoyed his hospitality. Twice again he threw, still the lot was against him. He was immolated.—Voigt, iii. 204.

they no doubt deemed a more irrefragable title, the grants of Popes and Emperors, the Order became Sovereigns; a singular sovereignty, which descended, not by hereditary succession, but by the incorporation of new Knights into the Order. The whole land became the absolute property of the Order, to be granted out but to Christians only: apostasy forfeited all title to land.

Their subjects were of two classes: I. The old Prussians converted to Christianity after the conquest. Baptism was the only way to become a freeman, a man. The conquered unbeliever who remained an unbeliever, was the slave, the property of his master, as much as his horse or hound. The three ranks which subsisted among the Prussians, as in most of the Teutonic and kindred tribes, remained under Christianity and the sovereignty of the Order. The great landowners, the owners of castles held immediately of the Order: their estates had descended from heathen times. These were, 1, the Withings; 2, the lower vassals; and 3, those which answered to the Leudes and Lita of the Germans, retained their rank and place in the social scale. All were bound to obey the call to war, to watch and ward; to aid in building and fortifying the castles and strongholds of the Order.

II. The German immigrants or colonists. These were all equally under the feudal sovereignty of the Order. The cities and towns were all German. The Prussian seems to have disdained or to have had no inclination to the burgher life. There were also German villages, each under its Schultheiss, and with its own proper government.

Thus was Christendom pushing forward its borders. These new provinces were still added to the dominion

of Latin Christianity. The Pope grants, the Teutonic Order hold their realm on the conjoint authority of the successors of Cæsar and of St. Peter. As a religious Order, they are the unreluctant vassals of the Pope; as Teutons, owe some undefined subordination to the Emperor.*

* Voigt is a sufficient and trustworthy authority for this rapid sketch. The Order has its own historians, but neither is their style nor their subject attractive.

CHAPTER VI.

Pope John XXII.

CLEMENT V. had expired near Carpentras, a city about fifteen miles from Avignon, near the foot of Mont Ventoux. At Carpentras the Conclave assembled, according to later usage, in the city near the place where the Pope had died, to elect a successor to the Gascon Pontiff. Of twenty-three Cardinals six only were Italians. With them the primary object was the restoration of the Papacy to Rome. The most sober might tremble lest the Papal authority should hardly endure the continued if not perpetual avulsion of the Popedom from its proper seat. Would Christendom stand in awe of a Pope only holding the Bishopric of Rome as a remote appanage to the Pontificate, only nominally seated on the actual throne of St. Peter, in a cathedral unennobled, unhallowed by any of the ancient or sacred traditions of the Cæsarean, the Pontifical city? Would it endure a Pope setting a flagrant example of non-residence to the whole ecclesiastical order; no longer an independent sovereign in the capital of the Christian world, amid the patrimony claimed as the gift of Constantine and Charlemagne, but lurking in an obscure city, in a narrow territory, and that territory not his own? Avignon was in Provence, which Charles of Anjou had obtained in right of his wife. The land had descended to his son Charles II. of Naples; on the death of Charles, to the ruling sovereign, Robert of

Naples.* The Neapolitan Angevine house had still maintained the community of interests with the parent monarchy; and this territory of Provence, Avignon itself, was environed nearly on all sides by the realm of France, that realm whose king, not yet dead, had persecuted a Pope to death, persecuted him after death.

The Italian, but more especially the Roman, Cardinals contemplated with passionate distress Rome deserted by her spiritual sovereign, and ^{The Italian Cardinals.} deprived of the pomp, wealth, business of the Papal Court. The head and representative of this party was the Cardinal Napoleon, of the great Roman house of the Orsini. A letter addressed by him to the King of France shows this Italian feeling, the hatred and contempt towards the memory of Clement V. He bitterly deplores, and expresses his deep contrition at his own weakness, and that of the other Cardinals at Perugia, in yielding to the election of Clement. The Church under his rule had gone headlong to ruin. Rome was a desert; the throne of St. Peter, even that of Christ himself, broken up; the patrimony of St. Peter held rather than governed, by robbers; Italy neglected and abandoned to strife and insurrection; not only cathedral churches, the meanest prebends, had run to waste.^b Of twenty-four Cardinals created by Pope Clement not one was sufficient for the high office.^c The Italian Cardinals had been treated by him with contemptuous

* See, further on, the purchase of Avignon from Queen Joanna of Naples by Clement VI.

^b "Quasi nulla remansit Cathedralis Ecclesia, vel alicujus ponderis prebendula, que non sit potius perditioni quam provisioni exposita."—Baluz. Collect. Act. No. XIII. p. 289.

^c Such seems the sense of the (corrupt?) passage.—"De XXIV. Cardinalibus quos in Ecclesia posuit nullus in Ecclesia est repertus, que cum aliquando credita fuit, sufficiens (ita?) habere personas, sed per eam fuit hoc." The twenty-four, I presume, include all Clement's promotions, some dead.

disrespect, never summoned but to hear some humiliating or heart-breaking communication. The Pope had more than meditated, he had determined, the utter ruin of the Church, the removal of the Papacy to some obscure corner of Gascony: "When I," said the Orsini, "and the Italian Cardinals voted for the elevation of Pope Clement, it was not to remove the Holy See from Rome, and to leave desolate the sanctuary of the Apostles."

The Italians, conscious of their weakness, were disposed to an honourable compromise. They The Gascons, put forward William Cardinal of Palestrina, a Frenchman by birth, and of high character. But in the French faction there was still an inner faction, that of the Gascons. Clement had crowded his own kindred and countrymen into the Conclave.⁴ Against them the French acted with the Italians. The contest within the Conclave was fierce, and seemed interminable. Provisions began to fail in Carpentras. The strife spread from the Cardinals within to their partisans without. The Gascons rose, attacked the houses of the Italian Cardinals, and plundered the traders and merchants from the South. A fierce troop of knights and a host of rabble approached and thundered at the gates of the Conclave "Death to the Italian Cardinals!" A fire broke Conclave out during the attack and pillage of the houses, fies, which threatened the hall of Conclave. The Cardinals burst through the back wall, crept ignobly through the hole, fled and dispersed on all sides.⁵

⁴ "Gascons ch' erano gran parte del collegio voleano la elezione in loro, e li Cardinali Italiani e Franceschi e Provenzali non acconsentivano; si erano stati gastigati del Papa Gascone."—Villani, ix. 70.

⁵ Bernard Guido apud Baluzium.

Epist. Encyc. Cardinal. Italarum de incendio urbis Carpenteratensis apud Baluz. No. XLII. Raynald. sub ann. 1314. The Continuator of Nangis attributes the fire to a nephew of Clement V. See also the Constitution of John XXII. against the robbers and incendiaries.

For two years and above three months the Papal See was vacant.^f Impatient Christendom began to murmur. The King of France, Louis le Hutin, was called upon to interpose both by the general voice and by his own interests. The office devolved on his brother Philip, Count of Ponthieu. By him the reluctant Cardinals were brought partly by force, partly inveigled, to Lyons. The pious fraud of Philip was highly ^{Conclave at Lyons.} admired. He solemnly promised that they should not be imprisoned in the Conclave, but have free leave to depart wherever they would. Philip was suddenly summoned to Paris by the death of the King of France, but he left the Conclave under strict and severe guard.

At length they came to a determination. James, Cardinal of Porto, was proclaimed Pope, and assumed the name of John XXII. John was of ^{John XXII} small, as some describe him, of deformed stature. He was born in Cahors, of the humblest parentage, his father a cobbler. This, if true, was anything but dishonourable to the Pope, still less to the Church. During an age when all without was stern and inflexible aristocracy, all functions and dignities held by feudal inheritance, in the Church alone a man of extraordinary talents could rise to eminence; and this was the second cobbler's son who had sat on the throne of St. Peter.^g The cobbler's son asserted and was believed by most to have a right to decide conflicting claims to the Imperial Crown, and aspired to make an Emperor of his own.^h

^f 2 years, 3 months, 17 days.—Bernard Guilo.

^g See Life of Urban IV., vol. iv p. 413.

^h Baluzius produces a passage from

Albertinus to make out John XXII. of knightly or noble birth. The controversy may be seen in Baluzius and in a note to Raynaldus sub ann.

James of Cahors had followed in his youth the fortunes of an uncle, who had a small trading capital, to Naples. He settled in that brilliant and pleasant city. He was encouraged in the earnest desire of study by a Franciscan friar, but refused to enter the Order. The poor scholar was recommended to the instructor of the King's children. Though in a menial office, he manifested such surprising aptitude both for civil and canon law, that he was permitted to attend the lectures of the teachers. The royal favour shone upon him. He was employed in the kingdom of Naples, in Rome, and in other parts of the world; took orders, received preferment, was appointed by Boniface VIII. Bishop of Frejus, in the Provençal dominions of the King of Naples. But he preferred to dwell on the sunny shores of Naples; perhaps under the immediate sight of the King. While he was on a mission to Clement V. the great see of Avignon fell vacant. To the astonishment of the King of Naples it was conferred on the obscure Bishop of Frejus. The Pope explained that the promotion was made on account of strong recommendatory letters from the King himself. The letters had been written, and the royal seal affixed, without the King's knowledge. But the consummate science of the Bishop of Avignon in both branches of the law won the confidence and favour of the Pope. He was created Cardinal for his invaluable services, especially at the Council of Vienne in the two great causes—the condemnation of the Templars, and the prosecution of the memory of Boniface. All Europe watched the Conclave of Lyons. Robert of Naples thought of his former subject, the companion of his studies. A Pope attached to Naples would aid him in the reconquest of Sicily, and in his strife as head of the Guelphs in Italy against Pisa and the Lombard

tyrants. The influence, the gold of Naples overcame the scruples of the stubborn Italians; Napoleon Orsini yielded; the cobbler's son of Cahors was supreme Pontiff.¹ It is said that he made a promise never to mount horse or mule till he should set out on his return to Italy.^k He kept his vow; after his coronation at Lyons, he dropped down the Rhône Oct 2, 1318. in a boat to Avignon, and there fixed the seat of his Pontificate.

This establishment in Avignon declared that John XXII. was to be a French not an Italian John at Avignon. Pontiff, the successor of Clement V., not of the long line of his Roman ancestors. His first promotion of Cardinals, followed by two others, Promotion of Cardinals. at different periods of his Pontificate, spoke plainly to Christendom the same resolute purpose. His choice might seem even more narrow than that of his predecessor, not merely confined to French, or even to Gascon prelates, but to men connected by birth or office with his native town of Cahors. The College would be almost a Cahorsin Conclave. Of the first eight, one was his own nephew, three from the diocese of Cahors, one French bishop the Chancellor of the King of France, one Gascon, only one Roman an Orsini. Of the next seven, one was from the city, three from the diocese of Cahors (of these one was Archbishop of Salerno, one Archbishop of Aix); the three others were French or Provençals. At a third promotion of ten Cardinals, six

¹ This circumstantial account of the life of John XXII. in *Ferietus Vicentinus* (Muratori, R. I. S. ix. 1166) bears strong marks of veracity. By another account, the Election was by compromise. The Cardinals agreed to elect the Pope named by the Cardinal

of Porto: he named himself.—See note of Mansi on Raynaldus. Villani in loc. cit. Compare also the close of encyclic letter addressed to Robert of Naples.

^k Ptolem. Luc. apud Baluz. p. 198 note, p. 793.

were French prelates; three Romans, one Archbishop of Naples, one an Orsini, one a Colonna; one Spaniard, Bishop of Carthageua.^m The Bishop alone of his native city of Cahors, as will soon appear, met with a different fate from the terrible justice or vengeance of the Pope.

The relation of John XXII. to the throne of France was greatly changed from that of his predecessor. There was no Philip the Fair to extort from the reluctant Pope, as the price of his advancement, the lavish gratification of his pride, avarice, or revenge. no powerful King, backed by a fierce nobility, and a people proud of their dawning freedom. A rapid succession of feeble sovereigns held in turn the sceptre of France, and then sank into obscurity. The house of Philip was paying condign retribution in its speedy and mysterious extinction. Divine Providence might have looked with indifference (so Christendom was taught, and Christendom was prone enough, to think) on all his extortions, cruelties, and iniquities to his subjects, on even his barbarities; but nothing less than the shame of his sons, each the husband of an adulteress, and the utter failure of his line, could atone for his impious hostility to the fame, person, and memory of Boniface. Louis le Hutin (the disorderly) had died during the Conclave at Lyons, after a reign of less than two years.ⁿ He had caused his first wife, accused of violating his bed, to be strangled or smothered; and had married Clementine of Hungary, niece of the King of Naples. He died leaving her pregnant. The death of her son soon after his birth,^o

^m The promotions, Dec. 17, 1313, Dec. 20, 1320, Dec. 16, 1328.
—Bernard Guille, pp. 134, 138, 140.

ⁿ From Nov. 24, 1314, to June 5, 1316.

^o Born Nov. 15, 1316, died five days after.

left the throne to the second son of Philip the Fair, Philip the Long. The accession of Philip (though his brother left a daughter) asserted the authority and established for ever the precedent of what was called the Salic Law, which excluded females from the succession to the throne of France.^p

The Pope in all the briefs addressed with great frequency to the King, divulged his knowledge ^{The Pope's} of the weakness of the crown. His language ^{brief.} is that of protecting and condescending interest, but of a superior in age and learning, as in dignity. He first rebukes the King's habit of talking in church on subjects of business or amusement. He reproves the national disrespect for Sunday; on that day the courts of law were open, and it was irreverently chosen as a special day for shaving the head and trimming the beard. He assumed full authority on all subjects which might be brought under ecclesiastical discipline. Of his sole authority he separated eight now suffragan bishoprics, Montauban, Lombes, St. Papoul, Rieux, Lavaur, Mirepoix, Saint Pons, and Alais, from the great Archbishopric of Toulouse. He did the same with the Archbishopric of Narbonne. His power and his reputation for learning caused his mandates for the reformation of the Universities of Paris, Orleans, and Toulouse to be received with respectful submission. His chief censure is directed against the scholastic theology, which had in some of its distinguished and subtile writers begun to show dangerous signs of insubordination to the Church of Rome. William of Ockham was deeply concerned in the rebellious movement of part, it might at one time seem of the whole, of the Franciscan body: he had pub

^p Sismondi, *Hist. des Français*, ix. p. 352.

lished the powerful treatise in defence of the Imperial against the Papal power.

But the profound learning of John XXII, though reputed to embrace not only theology, but both branches of the law, the canon and civil, was but the melancholy ignorance of his age. He gave the sanction of the Papal authority and of his own name to the belief, to the vulgar belief, in sorcery and magic. He sadly showed the sincerity of his own credulity, as well as his relentless disposition, by the terrible penalties exacted upon wild accusations of such crimes. The old poetic magic of the Greeks and Romans, the making an image of wax which melted away before a slow fire, and with it the strength and life of the sorcerer's victim, was now most in vogue. Louis le Hutin was supposed to have perished through this damnable art: half-melted images of the King and of Charles of Valois had been discovered or produced; a magician and a witch were executed for the crime.¹ Even the Pope's life was not secure either in its own sanctity, or by the virtue of a serpentine ring lent to John by Margaret Countess of Foix. The Pope had pledged all his goods, moveable and immoveable, for the safe restoration of this invaluable talisman; he had pronounced an anathema against all who should withhold it from its rightful owner. A dark conspiracy was formed, or supposed to be formed, in which many of the Cardinals were involved, against the life of the Pope.* Whether they were jealous of his elevation, or resented his establishment of the See at Avignon, appears not; but the Cardinals made their peace. The full vengeance of the Pope fell on a victim of the next rank, not only guilty,

¹ Trials for
magic.

¹ Sismondi, ix. 358.

* Raynaldus sub ann. 1317, c. lii.

it was averred, of meditating this impious deed, but of compassing it by diabolic arts. Gerold, Bishop of the Pope's native city, Cahors, had been highly honoured and trusted by Clement V. On this charge of capital treason, he was now degraded, stripped of his episcopal attire, and condemned to perpetual imprisonment. But the wrath of the Pope was not satiated. He was actually flayed alive and torn asunder by four horses.* There is a judicial proceeding against another Bishop (of Aix) for professing and practising magical arts at Bologna. A fierce and merciless Inquisition was set up; tortures, executions multiplied; many suffered for the manufacture of the fatal waxen images, a physician and several clerks. The Pope issued an edict of terrible condemnation, thereby asserting the reality of countless forms of sorcery, diabolic arts, dealing with evil spirits, shutting familiar devils in looking-glasses, circlets, and rings.† How much human blood has been shed by human folly!

But if the unrelenting Pope thus commanded the sacrifice of so many pretenders, if indeed they were really pretenders, to secret dealing with ^{The Franciscans.} supernatural agencies, it was no imaginary danger to the Papal power which threatened it from another quarter. During the papacy of John XXII., that fanatic movement towards religious freedom which arose in the Mendicant Orders broke out, not only into secret murmurs against the wealth and tyranny of the Church, but proclaimed doctrines absolutely subversive of the whole sacerdotal system, and entered into perilous alliance with every attempt to restore the Ghibelline and Imperial interest in Italy. The Church itself—the most

* Bernard Gundo, 488, 680. Raynaldus, 1317, liv. Gallia Christiana, t. p. 138.

† Raynaldus, *ibid.*

zealous, obedient, Papal part of the Church—gave birth to these new sectaries, who professed never to have left it, and to be themselves the Church within the Church.

The great schism of the Franciscan Order has already
 Schism, been traced in its commencement; and in the rise and consequences of that inevitable question, the possession of property. We have seen the worldly successor of the unworldly St. Francis, Elias, ruling, and repelled from the Order; the succession of alternately mild and severe generals till the time of John of Parma. We have seen the vacillating policy of the Popes, unwilling to estrange, unable to reconcile the irreconcilable tenets of these antagonists, who had sworn to the same rule, honoured the same Founder, called themselves by the same name, professed to live the same life. The mitigation of the rule by Gregory IX., and what seemed the happy evasion of Innocent IV., were equally repudiated by the more severe. Innocent would relieve them from the treason to the principles of their Master, and at the same time attach them more closely to the Papal See, by declaring all their property, houses, domains, church furniture, to be vested in the Pope. The usufruct only was granted by him to the brethren. The Spirituals disclaimed the worldly equivocation. The famous constitution of Nicolas III. reawakened, encouraged, seemed at least to invest with the Papal sanction, their austere zeal. However indulgent some of its provisions, its assertion of their tenets was almost beyond their hopes. The total abdication of property was true meritorious holiness.* Christ, as an example of perfection, was abso-

* "Abdicatio proprietatis hujusmodi omnium rerum non tam in speculi quam etiam in communi propter Deum meritoria est, et sancta, quam et Christus viam perfectionis ostendens, verbo docuit, et exemplo

lutely, entirely a Franciscan Mendicant. The use of a scrip or purse was only a tender condescension to human infirmity.*

So grew this silent but widening schism. The Spiritualists did not secede from the community, ^{The Frat-} but from intercourse with their weak brethren. ^{cellis, the} Spiritualists. The more rich, luxurious, learned, became the higher Franciscans; the more rigid, sullen, and disdainful became the lowest. While the church in Assisi was rising over the ashes of St. Francis in unprecedented splendour, adorned with all the gorgeousness of young art, the Spiritualists denounced all this magnificence as of this world; the more imposing the services, the more sternly they retreated among the peaks and forests of the Apennines, to enjoy undisturbed the pride and luxury of beggary. The lofty and spacious convents were their abomination;† they housed themselves in huts and caves; there was not a single change in dress, in provision for food, in worship, in study, which they did not denounce as a sin—as an act of Apostasy.‡ Wherever the

firmavit. Nec his quisquam potest ob-
sistere.”—Nicolas III. Bulla Excit. &c.

* “Egit namque Christus et docuit
opera perfectionis; egit etiam infirma,
sicut interdum in fugâ patet et locu-
lus.”—Ibid. The adversaries of the
Spiritualists objected that our Lord
and his apostles had a purse. “Yes,”
they rejoined, “but it was entrusted
to Judas: if it had been for our ex-
ample, it would have been given to
St. Peter.”

† The Devils held a chapter (it was
revealed to a Brother) against the
Order. Their object was to nullify
the three vows. “La Pauvreté, en
vueilissant à faire des somptueux mo-

nastères et magnifiques convents; la
Chastité, alléchant les religieux à
la familiarité et fréquentation des
femmes; l’Obedissance, en pourchassant
l’appuy et la faveur des princes secul-
liers, et par dissensions domestiques.”
—Chroniques, li. xxxv.

‡ The tenets of the Spirituals are
summed up in a citation from an
ancient Carta d’Appella in the posses-
sion of the author of a “Vita di S.
Francesco; Foligno, 1824.” He calls
it a Philippe or Verrino Oration.
“Peccato la tonaca perchè ampliata e
non vile nel prezzo nè nel colore. Pec-
cato l’ interior vesta, perchè non
ricordata se non nel caso di necessità.

Franciscans were, and they were everywhere, the Spiritualists were keeping up the strife, protesting, and putting to shame these recreant sons of the common father.

But the Spiritualists might have kept up this civil war within the Order; they might have denounced as sin the tunic, if too ample, or not coarse or dull enough in colour; the provision of corn in granaries; the possession of money for the purpose of exchange; the receiving of money for masses or funerals; the accepting bequests, though not in money; the building splendid convents, wearing the costly priestly dresses, and having gold and silver vessels for the altar; the partial bestowal of absolution on benefactors and partisans, from interest, not from merit; they might have stood aloof in perpetual bitter remonstrance against the pride, wealth, luxury, and the ambition to rule in courts, prevalent among their more famous brethren: all this was without peril to the Church or to the Pope. It was their revolutionary doctrine, superadded to and superseding that of the Church, which made them objects of terror and persecution.

Like all religious enthusiasts, the Spiritual Franciscans were lovers of prophecy. In their desert hermitages, in their barefoot wanderings over the face of

Pecrato la cerca del grano, del vino e d'altri generi, ed il farne la provisione nelle cantine, e nelle granai infino a tutto l' anno. Pecrato più d'averne in avanzo, è venderlo a cambiate per comprar robe per le tonnee; così qualunque altra vendita di cere, di pennoni, di mortori, &c., selbene rimanesse il denaro presso el Sindaco. Pecato il ricever per mezza di questo il danaro per la Messe e Funerali, o spontaneamente offerta in limosine, o questuando da devoti per far festa

nelle chiese dell' ordine: e peccato il servirsene lo stesso de' legati, specialmente fissi col fondo, qualunque fosse il titolo ed ancorchè fossino pagabili in roba, e non in moneta. *Pecato lo fabriche de' Conventi, perchè grandi e spaziosi, e paramenti sacri, perchè di seta con oro e argento, e per lo stesso motivo le altri utensili della chiesa. Il peccato finalmente la assoluzione che si danno nel Sacramento della Penitenzia, a i Benefattori e amorevoli, perchè data per interesse e contra il merito.*"

the earth, amid the ravines of the Apennines, or the volcanic cliffs of Apulia, in their exile in foreign climes, in their pilgrimages, and no less in their triumphant elation when Popes seemed to acknowledge the severest rule of St. Francis to be Christian perfection, they brooded over strange revelations of the future, which were current under various names, either interpretations of the Apocalypse, or prophecies of a bolder tone. The Abbot Joachim, of Flora in the kingdom of Naples, lives as a Saint in the Calendar ^{The Abbot Joachim.} of Rome; but the Everlasting Gospel ascribed to the Abbot Joachim was to Christianity, especially the Christianity of the Latin Church, what Christianity had been to Judaism, at once its completion and abolition. The Abbot Joachim, indeed, was not only revered as a Saint, the whole Church invested him in the mantle of a prophet; the Churchmen themselves accepted as of divine revelation all his wild ravings or terrible denunciations which could be directed against her enemies. Frederick II. had been doomed to ruin in the vaticinations of the Abbot of Flora; but the Church discovered not, or refused to discover, what elsewhere, among the more daring enthusiasts, passed for the true, if concealed, doctrines of Joachim; the Everlasting Gospel. This either lurked undetected in his acknowledged writings, in the Concordance of the Old and New Testaments, and his Comment on Jeremiah; or at least for half a century it awoke neither the blind zeal of its believers, nor the indignant horror of the higher ranks of the Church. So long the Abbot Joachim was an orthodox, or unsuspected prophet.* But the holy horror

* The Abbot Joachim was born A.D. 1145, died A.D. 1202. Pope Honorius III. avouched his orthodoxy. The Acta Sanctorum (vol. vii.) and the Annals of the Cistercian Order contain the Life of Joachim, his austerities, his

broke out at once on the publication, at the close of this period, of the Introduction to the Everlasting Gospel. The Introduction placed what was called the "doctrine of Joachim" in a distinct and glaring light, perhaps first wrought it into a system." The Church stood aghast. The monks of the older Orders, the Dominicans, the more lax and the more learned Franciscans, the Clergy, the Universities, the Pope himself, joined in the alarm. We have heard, in Paris, the popular cry, the popular satire; we have heard the powerful voice of William of St. Amour seizing this all-dreaded writing, to crush both Orders of Mendicants, and expel them from the University." It was denounced at Rome: the Pope Alexander IV. commanded the instant and total destruction of the book. Excommunication was pronounced against all who should possess the book, unless it was brought in and burned within a stated time. No one would own the perilous authorship. It was ascribed by the more orthodox Franciscans to a Dominican, by the Dominicans more justly to a Franciscan. There is little doubt that it came either from John of Parma, or his school.

The proscription of the book but endeared it to its followers. The visions were only the more authentic,

preaching, his wonders. The heterodoxy on the Trinity imputed to him by the fourth Lateran Council was probably founded on misapprehension, at all events was fully recanted. The best and most full modern account of this remarkable man is in Hahn, *Geschichte der Ketzer im Mittelalter*, t. iii. p. 72 *et seqq.* Stuttgart, 1850. See on his writings authentic and unauthentic, p. 82.

^b According to Hahn, there was a gradual approximation to the Book, through unauthentic writings attributed to Abbot Joachim, in which he is made more and more furiously to denounce the abuses in the Church. This is the new Babylon.—p. 101.

^c Compare back, vol. vi. 858, and extracts from *Roman de la Rose* and *Rutebauf*.

the greater the terror they excited. With the Spiritualists the heresy of John of Parma, and his concern with the prophecies, was among his chief titles to sanctity; on the other hand, skilfully detached from these opinions, he became, like Joachim himself, a canonised saint.^a The doctrine of the Introduction blended with and stimulated all the democracy of religion, which would bring down the pomp, pride, wealth of the hierarchy, and bow it before the not less proud poverty of the Franciscans. The enemies of the Order proclaimed it as the universal doctrine of the Friar Minors: they would hear no disclaimer. The Spirituals, the Fraticelli, chiefly the Tertiaries of the Order, disdained to disclaim, they rather openly avowed their belief, and scoffed at their more prudent or less faithful brethren. But the Everlasting Gospel, as announced in the Introduction, was the absolute abrogation of the Christian faith. There were to be three estates of man, three revelations of God. Judaism was that of the Father, Christianity that of the Son; that of the Holy Ghost was to come, was coming, was harbingered by irrefragable signs. At the commencement, and in the middle of the thirteenth century, its dawn was more and more anxiously awaited. All ecclesiastical, all political events were watched and interpreted as its preparation. Passages were probably interpolated in Joachim's real writings, announcing the two great new Orders, more especially St. Francis and his followers, as the Baptists of this new Gospel.^b The new Gospel was to throw into the shade the four anti-

^a *Acta Sanctorum*, March xix.

^b The Life of Christ by St. Bonaventura, by its close assimilation of St. Francis to the Saviour (singularly contrasted

as it is with the genuine Gospels, which it might seem intended to supersede among the Franciscans), appears almost designed to break this hostile collision.

quoted Evangelists. The Old Testament shone with the brightness of the stars, the New with that of the moon, the Everlasting Gospel with that of the sun.¹ The Old Testament was the outer Holy court, the New the Holy place, the Everlasting Gospel the Holy of Holies. No omens of the coming of the new kingdom of the Holy Ghost were so awful or so undeniable as the corruptions of the Church: and those corruptions were measured not by a lofty moral standard, but by their departure from the perfection, the poverty of St. Francis. The Pope, the hierarchy, fell of course. But who was to work the wonderful change? Whether the temporal sovereign, Frederick II., returned to earth, or a prince of the house of Arragon, Frederick of Sicily, varied with the circumstances of the times, and the greater activity and success of Ghibellinism. The more religious looked for an unworldly head, St. Francis himself, or some one in the spirit of St. Francis.

On minds in this state of expectant elation, came, at the close of the century, the sudden election
 Coelestine V. to the Popedom of Coelestine V., one of themselves in lowliness and poverty, a new St. Francis, to the Spiritualists a true Spiritual. His followers were by no means all believers in the Everlasting Gospel, but doubtless many believers in the Everlasting Gospel were among his followers; and in him they looked for the dawn of the kingdom of the Holy Ghost. Many probably of both classes crowded into the Order sanctioned by the Pope; the Coelestinians, who, though suppressed by Boniface VIII., still maintained their profound reve-

¹ "Autant che per sa grant valeur
 Soit de clarté soit de chaleur,
 Surmonte le Soleil la Luna.
 Qui trop est plus trouble et trop brune."
Roman de la Rose. 12438.

rence for the one genuine Pope, were bound together in common brotherhood by their sympathy with Cœlestine and their hatred of Boniface: they became a wide if not strictly organised sect.

During the Papacy of Boniface, perhaps at the height of his feud with King Philip, arose another ^{John Peter Oliva, A.D. 1297.} prophet, or what was even more authoritative, an interpreter of Scriptural prophecy. John Peter Oliva sent forth among the severe and fiery Franciscans of Provence, his Comment on the Apocalypse, consentient with, or at least sounding to most ears like, the Everlasting Gospel.* John Peter Oliva beheld, in the seven seals of that mysterious vision, seven states of the Church:—I. That of her foundation under the Apostles. II. The age of the Martyrs. III. The age of the exposition of the faith, and the confutation of insurgent heresies. IV. That of the Anchorites, who fled into the desert to subdue the flesh, enlightening the Church like the sun and the stars. V. That of the monastic communities, both secular and regular, some severe, some condescending to human infirmity, but holding temporal possessions. VI. The renovation of the true evangelic life, the overthrow of Antichrist, the final conversion of the Jews and Gentiles, the re-edification of the primitive Church. The VIIth was to come: it was to be on earth a wonderful and quiet pre-enjoyment of future glory, as though the heavenly Jerusalem had descended upon the earth; in the other life, the resurrection of the dead, the glorification of the saints, the consummation of all things.^b The sixth period had dawned, the antiquated Church was to be done away;

* The opinions of John Peter Oliva are known by the report of an inquisitorial commission, on sixty articles, but the articles are cited in the works of Oliva's commentary.—Barluzi Miscell. i. ^b Article I.

Christ's law was to be re-enacted; his life and crucifixion to be repeated. St. Francis took the place of Christ; he was the Angel of the opening of the sixth seal; he was one with Christ—he was Christ again scourged, Christ again crucified—the image and the form of Christ.¹ He had the same ineffable sanctity; his glorious stigmata were the wounds of Christ.^k The rule of St. Francis was the true, proper evangelic rule, observed by Christ himself and by his Apostles.^m As Christ rose again, so should the perfect state of Franciscanism rise again. John Peter Oliva asserted the truth of the visions of Abbot Joachim, as interpreted in the famous Introduction; Oliva's exposition of the Apocalypse was but in another form the Everlasting Gospel. The Father in the Law had revealed himself in awe and terror; Christ as the Wisdom of God in the Gospel. In the third age the Holy Ghost was to be as a flame and furnace of divine love; there was to be a kind of revel of delights and spiritual joys, in which there was not only to be a simple intelligence, but a savour and palpable experience of the truth of the Son—of the power of the Father.ⁿ Both systems affixed the name

¹ "In sexto statu rejectâ carnali Ecclesiâ et vetustate prioris sæculi renovabitur Christi lex et vita et crux. Propter quod in ejus initio Franciscus apparuit Christi plagis characterizatus, et Christo totus concrucifixus et configuratus."—IX.

^k In its spirit and much of its language, Oliva anticipated the profane *Liber Conformitatum*.

^m "Regulam Minorum per Beatum Franciscum editam esse verè et propriè Ullam Evangelicam quam Christus seipso servavit et Apostolis imposuit."

S. Francis, like the Redeemer, had his twelve apostles —A. XXII. XXXI.

ⁿ "Ergo in tertio tempore (there were three *Times*, as in the Everlasting Gospel, though seven Periods) Spiritus Sanctus exhibebit se ut flammam et fornacem divini amoris . . . et ut tripudium spiritualium jubilationum et jucunditatum, per quam non solum simpliciter intelligentiâ, sed etiam gustativâ et palpativâ experientiâ videbitur omnis veritas Sapientiæ Verbi Dei Incarnati et potentie Dei Patris."

of Babylon, the great harlot, the adulteress, to the dominant Church—to that which asserted itself to be the one true Church.* Oliva swept away as corrupt, superfluous, obsolete, the whole sacerdotal polity—Pope, prelates, hierarchy. Their work was done, their doom sealed: these were old things passed away; new things, the one universal rule of St. Francis, was to be the faith of man. As Herod and Pilate had conspired against Christ, so the worldly, luxurious, simoniacal Church arrayed herself against St. Francis. In her drunkenness of wrath, the Church flamed out against spiritual men, but her days were counted, her destiny at hand.

These wild doctrines and wild prophecies mingled in other quarters with other obnoxious opinions, all equally hostile to the great sacerdotal monarchy of Rome, and to the ruling hierarchy. Of all these kindred heresiarchs the strangest in her doctrine and in her fate was Wilhelmina, a Bohemian. She appeared in Milan, and announced her Gospel, a profane and fantastic parody, centering upon herself the great tenet of the Fraticelli, the reign of the Holy Ghost. In her, the daughter, she averred, of Constance Queen of Bohemia, the Holy Ghost was incarnate. Her birth had its annunciation, but the angel Raphael took the place of the angel Gabriel. She was very God and very woman. She came to save Jews, Saracens, false Christians, as the Saviour the true Christians. Her human nature was to die as that of Christ had died. She was to rise again and ascend into heaven. As Christ had left his vicar upon earth, so Wilhelmina left the holy nun, Mayfreda. Mayfreda was to celebrate the mass at her sepulchre,

* The Inquisitors drew this inference and justified it by these quotations:—
 "In toto isto Tractatu per Babylonem ipse intelligit Ecclesiam Romanam. . . .
 quæ non est meretrix sed virgo."—
 civ. Conf. vii. xix.

to preach her gospel in the great church at Milan, afterwards at St. Peter's in Rome. She was to be a female Pope, with full papal power to baptise Jews, Saracens, unbelievers. The four Gospels were replaced by four Wilhelminian evangelists. She was to be seen by her disciples, as Christ after his resurrection. Plenary indulgence was to be granted to all who visited the convent of Chiaravalle, as to those who visited the tomb of our Lord: it was to become the great centre of pilgrimage. Her apostles were to have their Judas, and were to be delivered by him to the Inquisition. But the most strange of all was that Wilhelmina, whether her doctrines were kept secret to the initiate,[†] lived unpersecuted, and died in peace and in the odour of sanctity. She was buried first in the church of St. Peter in Orto; her body was afterwards carried to the convent of Chiaravalle. Monks preached her funeral sermon; the Saint wrought miracles; lamps and wax candles burned in profuse splendour at her altar; she had three annual

[†] AD 1211 to 1301.

festivals; her Pope, Mayfreda, celebrated mass. It was not till twenty years after that the orthodoxy of the Milanese clergy awoke in dismay and horror; the wonder-working bones of S. Wilhelmina were dug up and burned; Mayfreda and one Andrea Saramita expiated at the stake the long unregarded blasphemies of their mistress.[‡]

[†] Had the assimilation of S. Francis to the Saviour taken off the startling profaneness of this?

[‡] Muratori, *Ant. Ital.* 70, from the original records. The author of the *Annals of Colmar* calls her an English-woman of extraordinary beauty.—*Apud Boehmer, Fontes*, i. p. 89. In the process there is no charge of unchastity. Corio, *Storia di Milano*, p.

159, gives the popular view in which the sect is accused of all the promiscuous licences which is the ordinary charge against all secret religions. In the same document, which embraces the process of Wilhelmina, is that of Stephen of Corcorezo, who was accused of favouring heretics, and as concerned in the murder of the Inquisitor, Peter Martyr.

Nor was this wild woman the only heretic who cheated the unsuspecting wonder of the age into saint worship; there were others whose ^{Pongiluppo of Ferrara.} piety and virtues won that homage which was rudely stripped away from the heterodox. Pongiluppo of Ferrara had embraced Waldensian, or possibly Albigensian opinions: he was of the sect known in Bagnola, a Provençal town. He died at Ferrara; he was splendidly buried in the cathedral, and left such fame for holiness that the people crowded round his tomb; his miracles seemed so authentic that the Canons, the Bishop himself, Albert, a man esteemed almost a saint at Ferrara, solemnly heard the cause, and received the deposition of the witnesses. But the stern Dominican Inquisitors of Ferrara had a keener vision; the sainted Pongiluppo was condemned as an irreclaimable, a relapsed heretic; the Canons were reduced to an humiliating acknowledgment of their infatuation.*

Of far higher, and therefore more odious name, was Dolcino of Novara, who became the fierce apostle of a new sect, of kindred tenets with the Fraticelli or spiritual Franciscans, with some leaven of the old doctrines of the Patarines (the Puritans) of Lombardy. His was not a community of meek and dreaming enthusiasts, or at the worst of stubborn and patient fanatics; they became a tribe, goaded by persecution to take up arms in their own defence, and only to be suppressed by arms. The patriarch and protomartyr of this sect was Gerard Sagarelli of Parma, then a stronghold of the Spiritualists.

* Muratori adduces other instances of these fraudulent yet successful attempts at obtaining the honours of Saintship.—Ibid.

Gerard Sagaralli seemed to aspire to found a new Order more beggarly than the most beggarly of the Franciscans: he had much of the Fraticelli, but either of himself determined or was driven to form a separate community. Pope Innocent had at first rejected St. Francis as a simple half-crazy enthusiast, so the Franciscans drove Sagaralli from their doors as a lunatic idiot. As Francis aspired to the perfect imitation of the Saviour, so Sagaralli to that of the Apostles. He still haunted the inhospitable cloister and church of the Franciscans, which would not receive him as their inmate. A lamp burned day and night within the precincts, which cast its mysterious light on a picture and representation of the Apostles. Sagaralli sat gazing on the holy forms, and thought that the apostle rose within his soul. He determined to put on the dress in which the painter, according to his fancy or according to convention, had arrayed the holy twelve. His wild long hair flowed down his shoulders; his thick beard fell over his breast; he put rude sandals on his bare feet; he wore a tunic and a cloak clasped before, of the dullest white and of the coarsest sackcloth; he had a cord, like the Franciscans, round his waist. He had some small property, a house in Parma; he sold it, went out into the market-place with his money in a leathern purse, and, taking the seat on which the Podestà was accustomed to sit, flung it among the scrambling boys, to show his contempt and utter abandonment of the sordid dross. He was not content to be an apostle; he would surpass St. Francis himself in imitation of their Master, not of his death but of his infancy. He underwent circumcision; he laid himself in a cradle, was wrapped in swaddling-clothes, and, it is said, even received the breast from some wild female

believer.* In Parma, Sagarelli, though for several years he prayed and preached repentance and beggary in the streets, had a very few followers: in the neighbourhood his loud shrill preaching had more success. At length at Faenza, he who had been beheld with contempt or compassion at Parma, became the head of an undisciplined yet organised sect. He found his way back, if not into the city, into the diocese of Parma.

The utmost aim of Sagarelli was the foundation of a new Mendicant brotherhood: for those who had taken the vow of poverty would not endure one poorer than themselves: his followers called themselves the Apostles, or the Apostolic Brethren, or the Perfect. They were but Spiritual Franciscans under a new name.

Obizzo Sanvitale, the Bishop of Parma, was of the Genoese house of Fieschi, nephew of Innocent IV.† This haughty and turbulent Prelate permitted not the Inquisitors to lord it in his city; the Inquisitors were the victims of popular insurrection. When in the act of burning some hapless heretics they were attacked, dispersed, driven from the city. Parma defied an interdict, and for a time refused to readmit the Inquisitors.

Sagarelli himself had now been preaching above

* Read Mosheim's account of Sagarelli, *Geschichte des Apostel-Ordens*, in his two volumes of *German Essays*. This Essay is a model of the kind of Dissertation to which later inquirers have added little or nothing. Mosheim doubts, I hardly see why, this last extravagance.

† Obizzo Sanvitale was promoted by Alexander IV., the great patron of Franciscanism, A.D. 1257. In the Baptistery, which he began to build at Parma—"mirabilis architecturæ,

picturis non spemendis exornatus"—appeared in high honour the genuine likeness of S. Francis. Obizzo was a strong defender of ecclesiastical rights: he laid an interdict on the Prætor (the Podestà?) of Parma. He bore persecutions with a masculine spirit; and defended himself so well against his calumniators, that he was presented by Boniface VIII. (A.D. 1293) to the archiepiscopate of Ravenna. There he died, and was buried in the *Franciscan* convent.—Ughelli, *Italia Sacra*, ii. p. 227,

twenty years, either despised as a fanatic or dissembling his more obnoxious opinions. He was summoned before the Bishop, who, in compassion or disdain, not only spared his life, but allowed the beggar of beggars the crumbs from his lordly table. The sect of Sagarelli was no doubt among those unauthorised

A.D. 1280.

Orders against which Honorius IV. issued his Bull. Sagarelli was banished from Parma; he returned again, and was thrown into prison; some of his followers were burned. At length, under the Pontificate of Boniface VIII., in the year of jubilee, when Christendom was under its access of passionate devotion, the Inquisition, the Dominican Inquisition, resumed its full power in Parma. Sagarelli was seized; once he abjured, or seemed to abjure, but the remorseless Manfred, the Great Inquisitor, would not lose his prey. That abjuration surrendered him as a relapsed heretic to his irrevocable doom: he was condemned to the flames. By one wild account of this terrible scene, in the midst of the fire the voice of the heretic was heard, "Help, Asmodeus." At once the fire went out. Thrice it was rekindled, thrice at that powerful spell it smouldered into harmlessness. Nothing was to be done but to appeal to a more potent name. The Host was brought, the heretic again bound on the pile, again the flames blazed. "Help, Asmodeus," again cried Sagarelli. There was a wailing in the air: "One stronger than ourselves is here." The fire did its terrible work. Such things were believed in those days. No one shuddered with horror at the body of the merciful Saviour being employed on such fearful office."

* I owe this reference to Jacob ab Aquis, in the recently published *Monumenta Hist. Sabaudie* to Sign. Mariotti, Dolcino de Novara.

Dolcino, born at a village near Novara, either Prato or Tragantino, caught up the prophet's mantle at the fiery departure of Sagarelli. The new ^{Dolcino of Novara.} heresiarch was no humble follower: he had neither the prudence nor the timidity of the elder teacher to disguise or to dissemble his opinions. He was a man cast in an iron mould; not only with that eloquence which carries away a host of hearers with an outburst of passionate attachment and is gone, but that which sinks deep into the souls of men, and works a stern, enduring, death-defying fanaticism. He must have possessed wonderful powers of organisation, and, as appeared, by inspiration, extraordinary military skill. Obscurity and mystery, perhaps even in his own day, hung over the youth and early life of Dolcino. He was said to have sprung from a noble family, the Tonielli; he was not improbably the son of a married Lombard priest. Either before or immediately after the death of Sagarelli, he was in the Tyrol, and in the diocese of Trent, where lurked no doubt many heirs of the doctrines of Arnold of Brescia: it might be too of the Waldensians and other antisacerdotalists. The stern Franciscan Bishop of Trent, BuonAccolti, drove him back to the southern side of the Alps. As the acknowledged head of the Apostolic Brethren, on the death of Sagarelli he was expelled from Milan, from Como, from Brescia, from Bergamo. According to one account he took refuge beyond the Adriatic Sea, among the wild forests of Dalmatia.*

But he was everywhere present by his doctrines. His

* Mosheim seems not to doubt the residence in Dalmatia. His reasoning is plausible; but on this point alone that severe writer yields, it appears to me, to conjecture.

epistles became the Gospel, his prophecies the Koran of the Order. Of his three epistles, which contained the chief part of his doctrines, two still survive. Like the Franciscan Spiritualists, the Apostles of Parma had their periods and eras in the history of mankind. There were four states of man:—I. That of the Patriarchs and Prophets, when not only marriage but polygamy was lawful for the propagation of the human race.⁷ II. That of Christ and his Apostles; who had taught that virginity was better than marriage, poverty than riches, to live without property better than to hold possessions. This period closed with St. Silvester. III. In the third, the evil and iron age, the love of the people began to wax cold towards God and their neighbour: the Church assumed wealth and temporal power. All Popes, from St. Silvester, had been prevaricators and deceivers, except Coelestine V. The rule of St. Benedict, the life of the monks, had been the saving goodness of that age. When the love of the monks as of the clergy grew cold, virtue and holiness had perished; all were evil, haughty, avaricious, unchaste. St. Francis and St. Dominic had surpassed the rule of St. Benedict and of the monks, yet this too was but for a time. The iron age was to come to a terrible end, which was to sweep away Pope, prelates, monks, friars. But, IV. Gerard of Parma began the fourth, the golden age—that of true Apostolic perfection. The Dolcinites too had their Apocalyptic interpretations. The Seven Angels were, of Ephesus, St. Benedict; of Pergamus, Pope Silvester; of Sardis,

⁷ Compare Mosheim's very ingenious rendering of a passage in the epistle of Dolcino: "In quo statu laudabat bonum fuisse numerum *eum* (uxorum M.) causâ multiplicandi genus humanum."—Dissert., p. 246.

St. Francis; of Laodicea, St. Dominic; of Smyrna, Gerard of Parma; of Thyatira, Dolcino of Novara; of Philadelphia, the future great and holy Pope.

Against the ruling Popes they were more fearless and denunciatory. The Popedom was the great harlot of the Revelation. In the latter days ^{Anti-Papal tenets.} there were to be four Popes, the first and last good, the second and third bad. The first good Pope was Celestine V., whose memory they revered with the zeal of all the idolaters of poverty. The first of the bad was Boniface VIII. The third they did not name: no one could be at a loss for their meaning.* As to the fourth, John XXII. had not ascended the throne before Dolcino and most of his partisans had perished; but it would have been impossible to have conceived (nor could the apostles, the successors of Dolcino, conceive) a Pontiff, except from his lowly birth, so opposite to the unworldly, humble, poverty-loving ideal of a Pontiff. According to them, no Pope could give absolution who was not holy as St. Peter; in poverty absolutely without property; in lowliness not exciting wars, persecuting no one, allowing every one to live in freedom of conscience.^a They were amenable to no Papal censure (from some lingering awe they left to the Pope the power of issuing decrees and appointing to dignities); but no Pope had authority to command them, by excommunication, to abandon the way of perfection, nor could they be summoned before the Inquisition for following after that same perfection.^b

* Benedict XI. seems to have been passed over.

* "Non fovendo guerras, nec aliquem persequendo, sed permittendo

vivere quemlibet in sua libertate."—Additament., Hist. Dolcin. apud Muratori.

^b Hist. Dolcin. p. 435.

The Dolcinites had their strong but peculiar Ghibellinism. Their prophetic hopes rested on the Ghibellinism. Sicilian House of Aragon. Frederick of Aragon was to enter Rome on the Nativity, in the year 1335 (so positive and particular were they in their vaticinations), to become Emperor to create nine Kings (or rather, according to the Apocalypse, ten), to put to death the Pope, his prelates, and the monks. The Church was to be reduced to her primitive Apostolic poverty. Dolcino was to be Pope, if then alive, for three years; and then came the Perfect Pope, by special outpouring of the Holy Ghost. It might be Dolcino himself holy as St. Peter, or Gerard of Parma restored to life. Then Antichrist was to come; the Perfect Pope was to be rapt for a time to Paradise with Enoch and Elias; after the fall of Antichrist he was to return and convert the whole world to the faith of Christ.

Dolcino and his followers first appear as an organised community in Gattinara and the Val Sesia in A.D. 1304.
In the Val
di Sesia. Piedmont. That beautiful region at the foot of the lower Alps, with green upland meadows, shaded by fine chestnut groves, and watered by the clear Sesia and the streams which fall into it, had been but recently possessed by the great Ghibelline family, the Blandrate. To this land believers in these popular tenets flocked from all quarters, from the Alpine valleys, from beyond the Alps. They proclaimed that all duties were to yield to the way of perfection: the bishop might quit his see, the priest his parish, the monk his cloister, the husband his wife, the wife her husband, to join the one true Church. Dolcino in one respect discarded, or (it is doubtful which) boasted himself superior in asceticism to the severity of most of the former sects. Each, like the apostle, had "a sister:" with that sister every one

aspired to live in the most unblemished chastity. It is even said, but by their enemies, that they delighted to put that chastity to the most perilous trial. Dolcino had a sister like the rest, the beautiful Margarita, a Tyrolese maiden of a wealthy family, of whom he had become enamoured with profane or holy love, when beyond the Alps. By him she was asserted to be a model and miracle of perfect purity: his enemies of course gave out that she was his mistress.* At the close of their dark destiny she was taunted as though she were pregnant. "If so," replied the confident followers of Dolcino, and Dolcino himself, "it must be by the Holy Ghost." All this, however, is belied by other and not less unfriendly authorities.¹ But these peaceful sectaries (peaceful, at least, as far as overt acts, if hardly so in their all-levelling doctrines) could not be long left in peace. In all respects but in their denunciation against the hierarchy they were severely orthodox: they accepted the full creed of the Church, and only super-added that tenet. Already, soon after his accession, Clement V., at the solicitation of the clergy and the Guelfs of the neighbourhood, had issued his Bull for their total extirpation. Already there were menaces,

* "Secum ducebat Amaslam, nomine Margaritam, quam dicebat se tenere more sororis in Christo, providè et honestè; et quia deprehensum fuit esse gravida, ipsæ et sui asseverant esse gravidam de Spiritu Sancto."—Additament., p. 459.

¹ Mosheim justly observes that in the authentic documents there is no charge of licentiousness against the earlier or later apostles, neither in the bulls of Honorius IV. or Nicolas

IV., nor in any reports of the trials, more especially the very curious examination at a much later period of Peter of Lugo at Toulouse, in Lamborch, Hist. Inquisitionis. "Allein die Gerichtsregister, so wohl zu Tholouse, als zu Veicelli sprechen sie von dieser Anklage los, weil sie ihnen keine Unreinigkeit, keine Uebertretung der Gesetze von der Zucht und Keuschheit vorwerfen."—P. 305.

signs, beginnings of persecution: the Inquisition was in movement. Almost at once the sect became an army. On a mountain called Balnera, or Valnera, in the upper part of the valley of the Sesia, they pitched their camp and built their town. Dolcino himself found hospitable reception with a faithful disciple, a rich landowner, Milano Sola. They gave out that God might be worshipped as well in the deep forest, on the snowy crag, as in the church.

The first attempt at hostility against them ended in shameful discomfiture. The Podestà of Varallo headed an attack: he was ignominiously defeated, taken, redeemed at a large ransom. Dolcino and his followers (they were now counted by thousands) were masters of the whole rich Val Sesia. But the thunderclouds were gathering. No sooner was the Papal Bull proclaimed than the Guelfic nobles met in arms: they took a solemn oath in the church of Scopas to exterminate these proscribed and excommunicated heretics. This formidable league wanted not a formidable captain. The Bishop Rainieri, of the noble and Guelfic family of the Avogadri, now ruled in Vercelli. He set himself at the head of the crusade. Dolcino's followers had become soldiers, Dolcino a general of more than common sagacity and promptitude. He made a bold march along the sharp mountain-ridge, and seized a strong position, the bare rock, still called Monte Calvo. The

June 1.

despair of fanaticism is terrible. The conflicts became murderous on both sides. Thrice at least the forces of the Bishop suffered disgraceful defeat. The Bishop saw his whole diocese a desolate waste: even the churches were sacrilegiously despoiled, the images of the Madonnas were mutilated, the holy vessels carried off. They broke the bells and threw down the

belfries.* But the stronger the position of Dolcino, the greater his weakness. How were thousands to find food on those bleak inhospitable crags? The aggression of their persecutors had made them warriors: it now made them robbers. Society had declared war against them: they declared war against society. Famine knows no laws: it makes laws of its own. They proclaimed their full right of plunder, for without plunder they could not live: all was to them just, except the desertion of their faith.[†] Frightful tales are told of their cruelty in their last wild place of refuge; for they left in the mountain hold, on the bare rock, the weak and defenceless of their body; set off again with the same promptitude and intelligence, over mountain ridges and deep snows, and seized a still stronger height, Mount Zerbal, called after them Monte Gazzaro, above Triverio. Here for some months they defied all attack. The Bishop, grown wiser by perpetual discomfiture, was content to blockade all the passes. Starvation grew more intense; the women and the weakly, who had been left on Monte Calvo, found slowly their way to Mount Zerbal, and aggravated the distress. The women, if they did not join in the war, urged on the fierce irresistible sallies from their unapproachable mountain hold. They burst at one time on the town of Triverio, and thoroughly sacked it. It was on the prisoners in these expeditions that they wreaked their most merciless vengeance, or rather determined to turn them most relentlessly to their advantage. Gibbets were erected

* S. Mariotti well observes that their hostility to the bells and belfries is intelligible enough. They were rung as a token to rouse the country in case of an attack by the Dolcinites.

“Item derobare, carcerare et quæcunque mala inferre Christianis, potius quam mori et destruere eorum fidem.”
—Additamenta,

upon the brow of the sheer precipice, on which the inhabitants from below might behold their husbands, brothers, and kindred suspended, and slowly yielding up their lives. It was made known that they might be ransomed for food, or what would purchase food.^g Redemption at such a price could not be permitted by the inflexible Bishop. Men hunted like wild beasts, became wild beasts; they were reduced to the scantiest, most loathsome food; they ate everything indiscriminately; it is said as an aggravation during Lent.^h They had passed the wild dreary winter on these steep, dismal, hungry peaks. They ate rats, hares, dogs, chopped grass, even more horrible food. Jerusalem or Numancia beheld not more frightful banquets than the mountain camp of Dolcino, yet would they not surrender their lives or their faith. Nor was their noble resistance obscure or without its fame. It is difficult not to discern some Ghibelline admiration, perhaps sympathy, in Dante's famous lines,ⁱ though Dante, placing the message to Dolcino, "that he provision well his mountain fortress," in the mouth of Mahomet, may seem as it were to disclaim all compassion for the heresiarch. "Unless Dolcino did this he might come before his time to his awful doom." Famine at length did its slow work. The Novarese, or rather the Vercellese, won at length his dear-bought

Capture of
Gazzaro.

^g "Clam multos alios viros suspend-
erunt, videntibus uxoribus et parenti-
bus, quia non volebant se redimere ex
arbitrio prædictorum canum."—Hist.
Dolcin. p. 437. The ransom of the
Podestà of Varallo had been exacted in
kind, that is, in means of subsistence.

^h The preceding Lent they had fasted
like good churchmen. They had lived

on chopped hay, moistened with some
kind of fat liquid.

ⁱ "Or di a frà Dolcin', dunque che s'
amò,
Tù chiù forse vedrai il Sole in breva,
S' egli non vuol qui tosto seguitarm.
Sì di vivanda, chiù stretta di neve
Non resti la vittoria al Noarese,
Oh' altrimenti acquistar non sarà
lieve."

Inferno, xxviii. 15, 40

victory. The besieged were worn to thin, feeble, and ghostly shadows. Mount Zerbai was stormed. ^{Maundy Thursday} A thousand were massacred, drowned in their flight in the rivers, or burned. Of the prisoners not one would recant: all perished rather in the flames^k

Three—Dolcino, Longino, and Margarita—were reserved for a more awful public execution. The Pope was consulted as to their doom. The answer was cold, decisive. "Let them be delivered to the secular arm." Vercelli was to behold the triumph of her Bishop and the vengeance wreaked on the rebels to the Church. A tall stake was raised on a high and conspicuous mound. Margarita was led forth. Notwithstanding her sufferings, exposure, famine, agony, incarceration, such, it is strangely said, was her beauty that men of rank offered her marriage if she would renounce her errors.^m She was yet heiress, too, of her great estate in the Tyrol. But whether it was earthly or heavenly love, whether the passionate attachment of the fond consort, or the holy and passionless resolution of the saint, the noble woman had nothing of woman's weakness; she ^{Death of Margarita.} endured unfaltering to the end; she endured the being consumed by a slow fire in the sight of Dolcino himself; his calm voice was heard beseeching, admonishing her, as she shivered in the flames, to be faithful to the close. Dolcino was as courageous under his own even more protracted and agonising trial. He

^k "Atque ipsa die plures quam mille ex ipsis, tum flammâ, tum flumini submersi, ut præfatur, tum gladiis et morti crudelissimæ dati sunt,"—Hist. Dolcini.

^m "Illa vero imbuta doctrinâ ipsius nunquam deseruit mandata illius. Ideo

pertinacius in eo fuit firma, in hoc errore, consensatâ sexûs infirmitate. Nam cum mille uobiles quærent eam in uxorem, tum propter pulchritudinem illius, tum propter ejus pecuniam magnam, nunquam potuit flecti."—Benvenuto. Imola Muratori, S. R. I. x. 1122.

repelled all those who were sent to disturb his last hours with their polemic arguments. He and Longino were placed on a lofty waggon, in which were blazing pans of fire; men with hot pincers tore away their flesh by morsels, and cast them into the fire; then wrenched off their limbs. Once, and once only, as the most sensitive part of man was rent away, he betrayed his anguish by the convulsion of his face. At length, having been thus paraded through the land, both, Longino in Biella, Dolcino in Vercelli, were released from their long death.^a

These terrible scenes took place under the rule and by the authority of Clement V. Had John been on the Papal throne he would have even more rudely clashed with the spiritual notion of an unworldly and a poor Pope. Clement V. had been accused of avarice. John XXII. was even more heavily charged with the same vice; and no Pope plunged more deeply into the political affairs of his time than John XXII. His acts were at once a bitter satire and reproach on his predecessor, and an audacious proclamation of his own

^a The principal authority for this account is the Hist. Dulcini, in the ninth volume of Muratori, S. R. I., with the Additamenta, the author of which professes to have seen and to cite two of Dolcino's epistles. "But," he says, "they kept their doctrines secret, and held the right to deny them before the Inquisition." Dolcino, he avers, had abjured three times. Some circumstances are from Benvenuto da Imola's commentary on Dante.—Muratori, Ant. Ital. v. 8. This passage of my history was written before the publication of Sig. Mariotti's (?) "Dolcino and his

Times." Sig. Mariotti (it is not his real name) has the great advantage of perfect local knowledge of the whole scene of Dolcino's career (I had myself, before I thought much of Dolcino, travelled rapidly through part of the district). The work is one of great industry and accuracy, marred somewhat, to my judgement, by Italian prolixity, and some Italian passion. I am indebted to it for some corrections and additions. Sig. Mariotti has demolished, it seems to me, the religious romance of Professor Biagiolini, translated as history by Dr. Krone, "Dolcino und seine Zeit." Leipzig, 1844.

rapacity. In the fourth year of his Pontificate, John commenced a process which rent off the last veil Process about the wealth of Clement V. from the enormous wealth of Clement, and showed at the same time that the new Pope was as keenly set on the accumulation of Papal treasures. Clement, before his death, had deposited a vast amount in money, in gold and silver vessels, robes, books, precious stones and other ornaments, with important instruments and muniments, in the Castle of Mouteil, in the Venaissin. The lord of the castle, the Viscount de Lomenie and Altaville, on Clement's death, seized, and, as it was said, appropriated all this treasure. Besides this he had received sums of money due to the deceased Pontiff. The Viscount was summoned to render an account. He and all persons in possession of any part of this property were to pay it into the hands of the Pope's treasurer, under pain of excommunication, and, as to the Viscount, of interdict on his territory. Those in the Court of Rome were to pay in twenty days, those in France in two months, those beyond the Alps in three. The demand against the Viscount was more specific. It amounted, in the whole, to 1,774,800 florins of gold. Of this 300,000 had been destined by Pope Clement to the recovery of the Holy Land; 820,000 to pious uses; 100,000 was a debt of the King of France; 160,000 due from the King of England. The Viscount was a dangerous man. No one ventured to serve the citation: it was fixed on the doors of the church at Avignon. The Viscount at length deigned or thought it prudent to appear before the Court. He acknowledged the trust of 300,000 florins: he was prepared to pay it when the crusade should begin. The baffled Pope, after much unseemly dispute, yielded to a compromise. The Viscount was to pay

150,000 : the other moiety was to remain in his hands, on condition that he or his heirs should furnish one thousand men-at-arms whenever the King of France, the King of England, the King of Castile, or the King of Sicily, or the elder son of either, should take the cross. The sum said to have been devoted to pious uses had dwindled to 200,000 florins. The Viscount declared that it had been already expended, chiefly by others : he was a simple knight, ignorant of money matters. The Pope was manifestly incredulous : he mistrusted the accounts ; and no doubt only acquiesced in the acquittal of the Viscount from despair of extorting restitution. He had but shown his own avarice and his weakness."

If the sect of Dolcino had been nearly extirpated before the accession of Pope John, the Spiritualists and the Fraticelli, the believers in the prophecies of the Abbot Joachim and John Peter Oliva, swarmed not only in Italy, but the latter especially, in the neighbourhood of the Papal Court of Avignon. These sordid and unseemly squabbles for money would not be lost upon them. All these men alike pertinaciously held that the sole perfection of Christianity was absolute poverty, without possession, personal or in common. They wore a peculiar dress, which offended by its strange uncouthness : they cast aside the loose long habit, appeared in short, tight, squalid garments, just sufficient to cover their nakedness.² Even of their dress and of their food—as they immediately put it into their mouths—they had only the use : they declared the

The Fraticelli.

* Vit. apud Baluz.

² " Perfectionem evangelicorum Christi in quâdem monstruosâ deformitate, et nihil in futurum reservando

a virus evangelicæ professionis vitam durentibus, esse cœsingunt."—Baluz. Miscell. ii. 247.

birds of the air and the beasts of the field to be their examples. Granaries and cellars were a wicked mistrust of God's providence.

The age was too stern and serious to laugh to scorn, or to treat these crazy tenets with compassion; and they struck too rudely against the power and the interests of the hierarchy, against the Pope himself, for contemptuous indifference. With all this was moulded up a blind idolatry of St. Francis and of his rule—his rule, which was superior in its purity to the Four Gospels—and an absolute denial of the Papal authority to tamper with or relax that rule. "There were two Churches:^a one carnal, overburdened with possessions, overflowing with wealth, polluted with wickedness, over which ruled the Roman Pontiff and the inferior Bishops: one spiritual, frugal, without uncleanness, admirable for its virtue, with poverty for its raiment; it contained only the Spirituals and their associates, and was ruled by men of spiritual life alone." They had firm confidence in the near approach of the times foreshown by John Peter Oliva, when the Pope, the Cardinals, all Abbots and Prelates, should be abolished, perhaps put to the sword. Such doctrines were too sure of popularity, possibly among some of the higher orders, assuredly among the wretched serfs, the humbler and ^{General dissemination.} oppressed vassals, the peasantry, the artisans of the towns, the mass of the lower classes. Multitudes no doubt took refuge from want, degradation, tyranny, in free and self-righteous mendicancy.^r They were spreading everywhere (the followers of Dolcino appeared in Poland), and everywhere they spread they disseminated

^a These are the words of the Bull of Pope John.—Raynald. sub ann. 1318.

^r See, too, the trial at Toulouse of De Lupo, referred to above.

their doctrines in new forms, each more and more formidable if not fatal to the hierarchy, Fraticellism, Beguinism, Lollardism. They first familiarised the common mind with the notion that Rome was the Babylon, the great harlot of the Apocalypse.

John XXII. was too sagacious not to foresee the peril ;
Alarm of Pope John. too arrogantly convinced, and too jealous, of his supreme spiritual authority not to resent ; too merciless not to extirpate by the most cruel means these slowly-working enemies. Soon after his accession Bull followed Bull equally damnatory. The Franciscan convents in Narbonne and in Beziers were in open revolt from their Order: on them the wrath of the Pope first burst. The Inquisition was committed to Michael di Cesena, still the faithful subject of the Pope, and to seven others.* Twenty-five monks were convicted, and sentenced first to degradation, then to perpetual imprisonment. Some at least still defied the persecutor: they committed their defiance to writing. "They had not abandoned the holy Order of St. Francis, but the whited walls, its false brethren ; not its habit, but its robes ; not the faith, but the bark and husk of faith : not the Church, but the blind synagogue (this was their constant and most galling obloquy: the corrupt Church was to the perfect one as the Jewish Synagogue to that of Christ); they had not disclaimed their pastor, but a ravening wolf." For this apostasy, as it was declared, they were brought to the stake and burned at Marseilles.† They were condemned for the heresy of denying the Papal authority. As yet there

* See the letter of John XXII., delegating the inquisitorial power to Michael di Cesena.—Baluzii Miscellanea. Another document contains the sentence of the Inquisition, and to this is appended his signature.

† See, for the frightful details, Vaussette, Hist. de Languedoc, tom. iv.

was no Papal censure of the strict spiritual interpretation of the Franciscan rule: it was the rather established by the Bull of Nicolas IV.

The Inquisition had begun its work: it continued under the ordinary Dominican administration, under which Franciscan heretics were not likely to find indulgence. In Narbonne, in Beziers, in Capestang, in Lodeve, in Lunel, in Pezenas, those deniers of the Papal authority, and so of the tenets of the Church (this was their declared crime), suffered, as one party thought, the just doom of their obstinate heresy; as they themselves declared, glorious martyrdom.* They were mingled perhaps (persecution is not nice in its discrimination) with men of more odious views, the secret survivors of the old Albigensian or Waldensian tenets. Many of them were believed to be, some may have been really, infected with such opinions. But those that perished at the stake were but few out of the appalling numbers. The prisons of Narbonne and Carcassonne were crowded with those who were spared the last penalty. Among these was the Friar Deliciosus of Montpellier, a Franciscan, who had boldly withstood the Inquisition, and was immured for life in a dungeon. He it was who declared that if St. Peter and St. Paul should return to earth, the Inquisition would lay hands on them as damnable heretics. At Toulouse the public sermons of the Inquisition took place at intervals, and these sermons were rarely unaccompanied by proofs of their inefficacy. Men who would not be argued into belief must be burned. The corollary of a Christian sermon was a holocaust at the stake.

* Mosheim had in his possession a martyrology of 113 Spiritual martyrs from 1318 to the Papacy of Innocent VI.

As yet the great question, the poverty of Christ and his Apostles, had not been awakened from its repose. The Bull of Nicolas IV. was still the law; but John XXII. was proud and confident in his theological learning, and not unwilling to plunge into the perilous controversy. The occasion was forced upon him, but he disdained to elude it: he seized on it without reluctance, perhaps with avidity. He was eager to crush at once a doctrine, the root and groundwork of these revolutionary prophecies of John Peter Oliva, which had recently been asserted, with intrepid courage, by an eloquent friar, Ubertino di Casale. Ubertino had not only been persecuted in Provence, he had been excommunicated, and driven out of Tuscany and Parma, where the Spirituals had set up a new General, Henry de Ceva, organised a new Order under provincials, custodes, and guardians, no doubt with the hope that from Sicily was even now to come forth the great king, the deliverer, the destroyer of the carnal and wealthy Church—he under whom was to open the fourth age, and to arise the poor, immaculate, Spiritual Pope.*

The Archbishop of Narbonne and the Grand In-

* "See the Bull *Gloriosam Ecclesiam*. "Tam detestabili turbæ præficientes magis idolum quam prælatum." This remarkable Bull recounts the five errors of the Spiritual Franciscans:—I. The assertion of the two churches, "unam carnalem, divitiis pressam, affluentem divitiis, sceleribus maculatam, cui Romanum Præsullem, cæterosque inferiores Prælatos dominari asserunt; aliam spirituales, frugalitate mundam, vestitu decoram, paupertate succinctam" II. The as-

sertion that the acts and Sacraments of the clergy of the carnal church were invalid. III. The unlawfulness of oaths. IV. That the wickedness of the individual priest invalidated the Sacrament. V. That they alone fulfilled the Gospel of Christ. There is a useful collection of all the Bulls relating to this Inquisition at the end of N. Eymeric, *Directorium Inquisitorum*. See for this Bull (dated Avignon, 23rd Jan 1318), p. 58.

quisitor, John de Beaune, were sitting in judgment on a Beghard. They summoned to their council all the clergy distinguished for their learning. One of the articles objected against the Beghard was his assertion of the absolute poverty of Christ and his Apostles. The Court were about to condemn the tenet, when Berenger de Talon, only a reader, but a man ^{Berenger de Talon.} of character, stood up and declared it sound, catholic, and orthodox. He would not be put down by clamour; he refused to retract; he cited the Bull of Pope Nicolas; he appealed to the Pope in Avignon. Berenger appeared before John XXII. and his Consistory of Cardinals, maintained his doctrine, was seized and put under arrest. But as yet the cautious Court proceeded no further than to suspend the anathema attached to the Bull of Pope Nicolas—the anathema against all who should reopen the discussion.^y

The Bull of Pope Nicolas was the great charter of Franciscanism. The whole Order was in commotion. A general Chapter was held at Perugia. The Chapter declared unanimously that they ad- ^{Chapter of Perugia.} hered to the determination of the Roman Church, and the Bull of Pope Nicolas, that to assert the absolute poverty of Christ, the perfect way, was not heretical, but sound, catholic, consonant to the faith. They appealed not only to the Papal Bull, but to a decree of the Council of Vienne. Michael di Cesena, the General of the Order, joined in the condemnation: he had signed the warrant making over the contumacious brethren to the secular arm at Marseilles; and now Michael di Cesena defied the Papal power, arrayed Pope against

^y See the Bull De Verborum Significatione. Walsingham says of the Statutes of Nicolas IV., "quæ faciunt non solum super his Minores, sed etiam iuvenire." —P. 58.

Pope, and asserted the obnoxious doctrine in the strongest terms. He stood not alone: the administrators of the Order in England, Upper Germany, Aquitaine, France, Castile, and six others, affixed their seal to the protest.²

The Pope kept no measures: he pronounced the Chapter of Perugia guilty of heresy; he issued a new Bull; he exposed the legal fiction, sanctioned by his predecessors, by which the property, the lordship of all the vast possessions of the Order, was in the See of Rome; he taunted them, not without bitterness, with the enormous wealth which they had obtained and actually enjoyed under this fallacy; he withdrew from them the privilege of holding, seeking, extorting, defending, or administering goods in the name of the Roman See. The perilous conclusion followed. It was at least menacingly hinted that the property was still in the original owners: whatever usufruct the Order might have was revocable. The Brother Bonagratia, the fierce opponent of Ubertino di Casale, who had defended the visions of John Peter Oliva, appealed against the Bull; he was thrown into prison.

The controversy raged without restraint. The Cardinals sent in elaborate judgements, most of them adverse to the Chapter of Perugia, some few with a milder condemnation, some almost approving their doctrines. The Dominicans, in the natural course of things, were strong on the opposite party; it was a glorious opportunity for the degradation of their rivals. Under their influence the University of Paris pronounced a prolix, almost an interminable, judgement against the Franciscans.

² Reynald, sub ann. 1322.

On the other hand, the most powerful dialectician of the age, William of Ockham, who had already ^{William of Ockham.} laid at least the foundations of his great system of rationalistic philosophy, so adverse to the spirit of the age; and who was about, by severe argument, to assail and to shake the whole fabric of the Papal dominion, employed all his subtle skill in defence of the Spirituals. Michael di Cesena, by a strange ^{Michael di Cesena.} syllogism, while he condescended to acknowledge the inferiority of St. Francis to the Redeemer, inferred his superiority to Christ, as Christ was understood and represented by the Church.* St. Francis practised absolute voluntary poverty; if Christ did not, he, the type, was inferior to the Saint his antitype. It could not be heretical to assert that St. Francis did not surpass his Example; Christ therefore must have done all or more than St. Francis, and practised still more total poverty. He appealed to the Stigmata as the unanswerable evidence to their complete similitude. All the citations from the Gospels and the Acts, which showed that Christ and his Apostles had the scrip, the purse, the bag (held by Judas^b), the sword of Peter, Christ's raiment and undivided robe, were treated as condescensions to human infirmity.^c This language had been authorised by the Bull of Pope Nicolas; and on that distinct irrevocable authority they rested as on a rock. It was clear that the Pope must rescind the deliberate decree of his predecessor. Nor was John the

* Raynald. sub ann. 1323.

^b See note above, p. 345.

^c "Sic Jesus Christus, cujus perfecta sunt opera, in suis actibus viam perfectionis exercuit, quod interdum imperfectorum infirmitatibus conde-

scendens, ut viam perfectionis extolleret, et imperfectorum infirmas semitas non damnaret." This passage refers to the "locutus" of Christ. So speaks the Bull "Exalt." vi. Decret. lv. t. xii.

pontiff who would shrink from the strongest display of his authority. He published two more Bulls in succession. On the grounds of Sacred Scripture and of good sense his arguments were triumphant,^a but all his subtle ingenuity could not explain away or reconcile his conclusions with the older statute. Nothing remained but to declare his power of annulling the acts of his holy ancestor. That ancestor, by his Bull, had annulled those of Gregory IX., Innocent IV., and Alexander IV.^b All those who declared that Christ and his Apostles had no property, only the use of things necessary, were pronounced guilty of damnable heresy. The Franciscans retorted the charge, and publicly arraigned of heresy the Pope himself.

This strange strife, which, if any strife, might seem altogether of words, had a far deeper significance, and led to the gravest political and religious consequences. Very many of the Franciscans in Italy, who swayed at their will the popular mind, became fierce Ghibellines. They took part, as will appear, with Louis of Bavaria against the Pope. In their ranks was found the Antipope. The religious consequences, if not so immediately and fully traceable, were more extensive and lasting. The controversy commenced by forcing on a severe and intrepid examination of the grounds of the Papal power. The Pope finally triumphed, but the victory shook his throne to

^a Perfection ought to be content with the use of things necessary to life. The Pope argued that the use of things necessary, food and clothes, implied possession.

^b "Si enim nobis non licuit contra constitutionem Nicolai IV. predecess-

oris nostri in qua se fundant, precipue aliquid statuere commune, nec sibi licuit contra statuta Gregor., Innocent. et Alexand., prædictorum, statuere aut aliquid declarare."—Estr., John, tit. xiv.

the centre. In 1328 Michael di Cesena appeared before the Pontiff at Avignon. He withstood him to the face, in his own words, as Paul did Peter. He was placed under arrest in the full Consistory. He fled to Pisa: there he made a formal appeal to a General Council, accused the Pope of twelve articles of heresy, published a book on the errors of the Pope, and addressed a full argument on those heresies to the Princes and Prelates of Germany.^f Among other bold assertions he laid down as incontestable, that a Pope who taught or determined anything contrary to the Catholic faith, by that act fell under a sentence of excommunication, condemnation, deprivation.^g He called the Pope James of Cahors, as though he were deposed. Among the articles against John was his assertion that Christ, immediately on his Conception, assumed universal temporal dominion;^h and so the high question, the temporal power of the Pope, became a leading topic of the controversy. In a dialogue between one of the Fraticelli and a Catholic,ⁱ the Catholic urges all the countless texts about the dominion of Christ, and declares that they must comprehend temporal dominion. His title of King were but a mockery, if it were not over earthly Kings and over States, only over the souls of men. If the Popes did not hold of right temporal possessions, they were damned for holding them. He recounts the most famous of the Pontiffs: "Are these pious and holy men damned?" The Fraticelli urges the infinite

^f *Tractatus contra errores Papæ apud Goldastum, ii. 1235 et seqq.*

^g "Unde Papa contra doctrinam fidel Catholicorum docens, sive statuens, in sententiam excommunicationis, damnationis, privationis incidit ipso facto."

^h He quotes against this the hymn of S Ambrose—

"Non accipit mortalia,
Qui regna dat celestia."

ⁱ Apud Baluzium, *Miscellanea*, t. 2.

scandal of the wars and dissensions excited by the Prelates of the Church for worldly power. "It is marvellous that ye are willing in arms, and, in defence of temporalities, to slay men for whom Christ died on the Cross." "The Prelates," rejoins the Catholic, "intend not to slay men (far be it from them!), but to defend the faith against heretics, and their temporalities against tyrants." The Catholic quotes one of the late Papal edicts. "He (the Pope) alone promulgates law; he alone is absolved from all law. He sits alone in the chair of the blessed St. Peter, not as mere man, but as man and God. . . . His will is law; what he pleases has the force of law."^k

Such avowed principles are those rather of desperate defence than of calmly conscious power; yet to outward show John XXII. retained all his unshaken authority. He issued a Bull, commencing with, "Since that reprobate man, Michael di Cesena." Though the strength of the General of the Order was in Italy, yet even there the Prelates of the Order, who were by family, city connexions, or opinions, Guelf, adhered to the Pope. The Imperialists in Germany were with the rebellious General, but in France he was held as a heretic. The more sober and moderate of the Order assembled, deposed him, and chose Bertrand di Torre as the General of the Franciscans.

This spiritual democracy had more profound and enduring workings on the mind and heart of man than the fierce outbreak of social democracy which now, during the reign of Philip the Long, again

^k Extravagant, de Institut. "Ipse beati Petri cathedrâ, non tanquam solus edit legem, ipse solus a legibus purus homo sed tanquam Deus et absolutus. Ipse est solus sedens in homo."—P. 631.

desolated France. As in the days of St. Louis, an insurrection of the peasantry spread from the British Channel to the shores of the Mediterranean. The long unrelenting exactions of Philip the Fair, which had weighed so heavily on the higher orders—where there were middle classes, on them too—increasing in weight as they descended, crushed to the earth the cultivators of the soil. The peasantry were goaded to madness; their madness of course in that age took a religious turn. Again, at the persuasion of a degraded priest and a renegade monk, they declared that it was for them, and them only, to recover the sepulchre of Christ. So utterly hopeless was it that they should conquer a state of freedom, peace, plenty, happiness at home, that they were driven by force to this remote object. By a simultaneous movement they left everywhere their unploughed fields, their untended flocks A.D. 1320. and herds. At first they were unarmed, barefooted, with wallet and pilgrim's staff. They went two by two, preceded by a banner, and begged for food at the gates of abbeys and castles. As they went on and grew in numbers, they seized or forged wild weapons. They were joined by all the wandering ribalds, the outcasts of the law (no small force). Ere they reached Paris they were an army. They had begun to plunder for food. Everywhere, if the authorities had apprehended any of their followers, they broke the prisons. Some had been seized and committed to the gaols of Paris. They swarmed into the city, burst open the gaol of the Abbey of St. Martin des Champs, forced the stronger Châtelet, hurled the Provost headlong down the stairs, set free the prisoners, encamped and offered battle in the Pré aux Clercs and the Pré St. Germain to the King's troops. Few soldiers were ready to encounter

them. They set off towards Aquitaine. Of their march to the south nothing is known; but in Languedoc they appeared on a sudden to the number of forty thousand.^m In Languedoc they found victims whom the government, the nobles, and the clergy would willingly have yielded to their pillage, if they could thus have glutted their fury. The Jews of the South of France, notwithstanding persecution, expulsion, were again in numbers and in perilous prosperity. On them burst the zeal of this wild crusade. Five hundred took refuge in the royal Castle of Verdun on the Garonne. The royal officers refused to defend them. The shepherds set fire to the lower stories of a lofty tower; the Jews slew each other, having thrown their children to the mercy of their assailants; the infants which escaped were baptised. Everywhere, even in the great cities, Auch, Toulouse, Castel Sarraasin, the Jews were left to be remorselessly massacred, their property pillaged. The Pope himself might behold from the walls of Avignon these wild bands; but in John XXII. there was nothing of St. Bernard. He launched his excommunication, not against the murderers of the inoffensive Jews, but against all who presumed to take the Cross without warrant of the Holy See. Even that same year he published violent Bulls against the poor persecuted Hebrews, and commanded the Bishops to destroy the source of their detestable blasphemies, to burn their Talmuds.ⁿ The Pope summoned the Seneschal of Carcassonne to defend the shores of the Rhône opposite to Avignon: the Seneschal did more terrible service. As the shepherds crowded, on the notion of embarking for

^m Sismondi says that they were at Albi June 25, at Carcassonne June 29, A.D. 1320.

ⁿ A.D. 1320.

the Holy Land, to Aigues Mortes, he cut off at once their advance and their retreat, and left them to perish of want, nakedness, and fever in the pestilential marshes. When they were weakened by their miseries he attacked and hung them without mercy.

The next year witnessed a more cruel persecution, that of the Lepers. There can be no more certain gauge of the wretchedness of the lowest The Lepers. classes of society than the prevalence of that foul malady, the offspring of meagre diet, miserable lodging and clothing, physical and moral degradation. The protection and care of this blighted race was among the most beautiful offices of the Church during the Middle Ages.* Now in their hour of deeper wretchedness and sufferings, aggravated by the barbarous folly of man, the cold Church was silent, or rather, by her denunciations of witchcraft and hatred of the Jews, countenanced the strange accusations of which the June 24, 1321. poor Lepers were the victims. King Philip sat in his Parliament at Poitiers. Public representations were made that all the fountains in Aquitaine had been poisoned, or were about to be poisoned, by the Lepers. Many had been burned; they had confessed their diabolic wickedness, which was to be practised throughout France and Germany. Everywhere they were seized; confessions were wrung from them. They revealed the plot; they revealed the authors of the plot; they were bribed by the Jews, they were bribed by the King of Grenada. The ingredients of the poison were named, a wild browage of everything loathsome and awful; human urine, three kinds of herbs (which they could not describe), with these a consecrated Host reduced to

* See vol. iv. p. 173, note.

powder. With another it was the head of a serpent, the feet of a toad, the hair of a woman steeped in some black and fetid mixture. Every leper, every one suspected of leprosy, was arrested throughout the realm. Some disputes arose about jurisdiction: they were cut short by a peremptory ordinance of the King to clear the land of the guilty and *superstitious* brood of lepers. They were ordered to be burned, and burned they were in many parts of France. A milder ordinance came too late, that only the guilty should be burned, that the females with child should be permitted to give birth to their miserable offspring. The innocent were shut up for life in lazarets.^p

The inexhaustible Jews furnished new holocausts. The rich alone in Paris were reserved to gorge the royal exchequer with their wealth. The King is said to have obtained from this sanguinary source of revenue the vast sum of 150,000 livres. The mercy of Charles the Fair afterwards allowed all who survived to quit the kingdom on paying a heavy ransom to the royal treasury.^q

^p Continuat. Nangis, p. 78. Histoire de Languedoc, iv. 79. Compare Simeoni, ix. p. 384.

^q Continuator Nangis.

CHAPTER VII.

John XXII. Louis of Bavaria.

IF John XXII. by his avarice offended those who held absolute poverty to be the perfection of Christianity, he was in other respects as far from their conception of a true Pope—one who should be content with spiritual dominion, and withdraw altogether from secular affairs. His whole life was in contemptuous opposition to such doctrines. Of all the Pontiffs—Gregory VII., Innocent III., Boniface VIII.—no one was more deeply involved in temporal affairs, or employed his spiritual weapons, censures, excommunications, interdicts, more prodigally for political ends. His worldliness wanted the dignity of motive which might dazzle or bewilder the strong minds of his predecessors. If he did not advance new pretensions, he promulgated the old in the most naked and offensive form, so as to provoke a controversy, which, however silenced for a time, left its indelible influence on the mind of man. In his long strife with Louis of Bavaria, no great religious, ecclesiastical, or even Papal interests were concerned. It was no mortal struggle, as for the investitures, for the privileges, or immunities of the hierarchy. Louis of Bavaria was no Henry IV., whose profligate life might seem to justify the severe animosity of the Pope; no Barbarossa aiming at the servitude of Italy, and of the Pope himself, to the Empire; no Frederick II. enclosing the Pope between the territory of the Empire

and the Kingdom of Naples, and suspected at least and accused of designs not against the hierarchy alone, against the faith itself. Louis, for his age, was a virtuous and religious prince, who would have purchased the Pope's friendship by any concessions. Nor was he powerful enough to be formidable. Nothing but the implacable and unprovoked hostility of the Pope goaded him to his descent on Italy, his close alliance with the Ghibellines, his sympathy with the Spiritual Franciscans, his elevation of an Antipope.

If John XXII., as he was publicly accused,^a avowed the wicked and un-Christian doctrine that the animosities of Kings and Princes made a real Pope, a Pope, as he meant, the object of common dread; if on this principle civil war amongst the Princes of Germany was the peace and security of the Church of Rome: never did Pope reign at a more fortunate juncture. On his accession John found the Empire plunged into confusion as inextricable as the most politic or hostile Pontiff could desire. On the sudden death of Henry of Luxemburg a double election followed, of singular doubtfulness and intricacy of title. Of the seven Electors, Louis of Bavaria had three uncontested voices—old Peter Aschpalter, Archbishop of Mentz, who, as heretofore, exacted on behalf of his See an ample price for his suffrage;^b Baldwin of Treves, as solemnly pledged, and for the same kind of retaining fee; and the Marquis of Brandenburg. The fourth was King Louis of Bohemia. For Frederick, of the great

^a Ludovici IV. Appellatio apud Baluzium, Vit. Pap. Avenion. ii. p. 478.

^b See in Boehmer (Regesta) the repeated and prodigal grants to the Archbishop of Mentz, less lavish to

the Archbishop of Treves. On Jan. 10, 1315, he pledges Oppenheim, the town and castle, with other places, to Peter Aschpalter, not to the Archbishop. This is not a singular instance.

house of Austria, stood the Archbishop of Cologne; Rodolph, Elector Palatine, though brother of the Bavarian; and the Duke of Saxe Wittemberg. With these was Henry of Carinthia, who laid claim to the kingdom and suffrage of Bohemia. Besides this dispute about the Bohemian vote, the Prince of Saxe Laenberg, on the side of Louis of Bavaria, contested the Saxon suffrage. For part of eight years^c Pope John had the satisfaction of hearing that the fertile fields of Germany were laid waste, her noble cities burned, the Rhine and her affluents running with the blood of Christian men. He might look on with complacency, admitting neither title, and awaiting the time when he would no longer dissemble his own designs. Even Clement V. had dreaded the union of the two realms of France and the Empire; he had dared secretly to baffle the plans of his tyrant Philip the Fair, to raise a prince of his house to the Imperial throne. Either from subservience, from gratitude, or from some haughty notion that a Pope in Avignon might rule the feeble princes who successively filled the throne of Philip the Fair, John determined to strive for the elevation of the King of France to the Empire. In Italy it was the deliberate policy of Pope John altogether to abrogate the Imperial claims of supremacy or dominion; but this was not conceived in the noble spirit of an Italian Pontiff, generously resolved, for the independence of Italy, to raise a powerful monarchy in the Peninsula, at the hazard of its obtaining control over the Pope himself. It was as a French Pontiff, ruling in Avignon, as the grateful vassal of his patron Robert of Naples, who had raised him to

^c From the accession of Louis of Bavaria, Oct. 20, 1314, to the battle of Muhldorf, Sept. 28, 1322. John, Pope, 1317.

the Papal throne, and continued to exercise unbounded influence over the mind of John, that the Pope plunged into the politics of Italy. The expedition of

Italian politics.

Henry of Luxemburg, and the voluntary exile of the Popes, had greatly strengthened the Ghibellines. At their head were the three most powerful of those subtle adventurers who had become Princes, the Visconti in Milan, Can della Scala in Verona, Castruccio in Lucca. Robert of Naples and the Republic of Florence headed the Guelfs. Immediately on his accession Pope John went through the idle form of issuing letters of peace, addressed to all the Princes and cities of Italy. But tempests subside not at the breath of Popes, and

A.D. 1317.

John speedily forgot his own lessons. Matteo Visconti ruled as Imperial Vicar, not through that vain title, but by his own power in the north. He was Lord of Milan, Pavia, Piacenza, Novara, Alessandria, Tortona, Como, Lodi, Bergamo, and other territories.⁴ The Pope forbade him to bear the title of Imperial Vicar during the abeyance of the Empire. Visconti obeyed, and styled himself Lord of Milan. As yet there was no open hostility; but Genoa had expelled her Ghibelline citizens. The exiles returned at the head of a formidable Lombard force furnished by the Visconti. The city was besieged, reduced to extremity. The Genoese summoned Robert King of Naples to their aid; they made over to him the Seignory of the city; but the new Lord of Genoa could not repel the besieging army, which still pressed on its operations. On the 29th April, 1320, Robert of Naples set out to visit the Pope at Avignon. The fate of Italy was determined in their long and amicable conference. The King had

⁴ Muratori, *Annali d' Italia*, sub ann. 1320.

bestowed on John the Popedom, John would bestow on Robert the Kingdom of Italy. The Cardinal Bertrand de Poyet, as the enemies of the Pope and the Cardinal averred (and they were not men to want enemies), the natural son of the Pope, was sent as the Legate of the Roman See into Lombardy. The Pope, during the vacancy of the Empire (and the Empire, if he had his will, would be long vacant), claimed the administration of the Imperial realm.*

In the next year King Robert was created, by the Pope's mandate, Vicar of Italy during the ^{Robert of} abeyance of the Empire. The Pope was pre- ^{Naples} Vicar. pared to maintain his Vicar, to crush the audacious Ghibellines, who had not withdrawn from the siege of Genoa, with all the arms, spiritual as well as temporal, within his power. The Inquisition was commanded to institute a process of heresy against Matteo Visconti and his sons, against Can Grande, against Passerino, Lord of Mantua, against the Marquis of Este, Lord of Ferrara, and all the other heads of the Ghibellines. The Princes protested their zealous orthodoxy; their sole crime was resistance to this new usurpation of the Pope.^f But the Pope relied not on his spiritual arms. France was ever ready to furnish gallant Knights and Barons on any adventure, especially where they might

* "De jure est legendum quod vacante imperio . . . ejus jurisdictio, regimen et dispositio ad summum Pontificem devolvantur, cui in personâ B. Petri, celestis simul et terreni Imperii jura Deus ipse commisit."—Bull, dated 1317. Compare Planck, v. p. 119.

^f Good Muratori had before spoken of the immoderate influence of Robert of Naples over the Pope; he proceeds:

"Che i Re e Principi della terra facciano guerra, e una pension dura, inevitabile di questo misero mondo . . . Ma sempre sarà da desiderare ch'è il sacerdozio, istituito da Dio per bene dell' anime, e per seminar la pace, non entri ad adjutare, e fomentar le ambizioze voglie de' Principi terreni, e molto più guardi dall' ambizione se stesso."—Annal, sub ann. 1320.

adorn their brilliant arms with the Cross. Philip, the son of Charles of Valois, descended the Alps at the head of three thousand men-at-arms; the Guelfs flocked to his standard; he was joined by the Cardinal Legate. But the French Prince, encompassed by the wily Visconti with a large force, either won by his unexpected and politic courtesy, or, as the Guelfs bitterly declared, over-bribed, at all events glad to extricate himself from his perilous position, retreated beyond the Alps without striking a blow. Still, though Vercelli fell before the conquering Visconti, the Cardinal Legate maintained his haughty tone. He sent to command the Milanese to submit to the Vicar named by the Pope, King Robert of Naples: his messenger, a priest, was thrown into prison.

The next year more formidable preparations were made. A large army was levied and placed under the command of Raymond de Cardona, an experienced General. Frederick of Austria was invited to join the league: his brother Henry came down the Alps, on the German side, with a body of men.

The spiritual battle was waged with equal vigour.

Council of
Bregolio.

A Council was held at Bregolio, near Alexandria. Matteo Visconti was arraigned as a profane enemy of the Church, as the impious and cruel perpetrator of all crimes and sins, the ravening depopulator of Lombardy.⁵ He had contumaciously prevented any one from passing his frontier with the Papal Bull of excommunication; he had resisted the Inquisition, and endeavoured to rescue a heretic female named Manfredi; he was a necromancer, invoked devils, and took their counsel; he denied the resurrection of the body;

⁵ Feb. 20, 1322. Concilium Bregoliense, apud Labbe, 1322.

for two years he had resisted the Papal monition. He was pronounced to be degraded, deprived of his military belt, incapacitated from holding any civil office, and condemned, with all his posterity, to everlasting infamy.¹ The land was under an interdict; his estates, and those of all his partisans, declared confiscate; indulgences were freely offered to all who would join the crusade, as against a Saracen. Henry of Austria was received in Brescia with two thousand men-at-arms: the Pope had purchased this support by one hundred thousand golden florins. The Patriarch of Aquileia, at the head of four or five thousand men, did not fear to publish the Bull of excommunication.¹ But Henry of Austria found that it was not in the interest of a candidate for the Henry of Austria. Empire to war on the partisans of the Empire.

"I come," he said to the Guelfic exiles from Bergamo, "not to crush but to raise those who keep their fealty to the Empire." He refused forty thousand florins for their reinstatement in Bergamo, and retired to Verona. There he was magnificently entertained, received sixty thousand florins from the Ghibellino league, and retired to Germany.

Matteo Visconti was only more assiduous, on account of his excommunication, in visiting churches, by such

¹ "Pubblicò e confermò tutte le scomuniche e gl' interdetti contra la persona di Matteo Visconti, de' suoi figliuoli e fautori, e delle di lui città, col confisco de' beni, schiavitù delle persone come se si trattasse de' Saraceni. Furono ancora aperti tutti i tesori delle Indulgenze e del perdono de' peccati, a chi prendeva la Croce e l' armi contra di questi pretesi Eretici. —Muratori, sub ann 1322.

¹ Compare Muratori during the

years 1319, 1320, 1321, 1323, for the acts of this furious Patriarch, supported by the no less furious Legate, Bertrand de Poggetto (Poyet). Foscolo says, with justice, "Eia prete omicida, venduto al Papa, e federato satellite di quel Cardinale di Poggetto al quale un anno o due dopo la morte di Dante andò a Ravenna a disotterrare le sue ceneri."—Discorso sul Testamento di Dante, pp. 20, 305.

acts of devotion making public profession of his Catholic faith; but he was seventy-two years old: he
June 27. died broken down by the weight of affairs, and left his five sons and their descendants to maintain the power and glory of his house, who were to provoke, from more impartial posterity, a sentence of condemnation for far worse crimes than the heresy imputed to him by Pope John.

The great battle of Muhldorf, between the rival
Sept. 28, 1322 claimants for the Empire, changed the aspect
Battle of of affairs.^k Louis of Bavaria triumphed. His
Muhldorf adversary, Frederick of Austria, was his prisoner. He communicated his success to the Pope.^m The Pope answered coldly, exhorting him to treat his illustrious captive with humanity, and offering his interposition, as if Louis had won no victory, and the award of the Empire rested with himself.

Louis could not doubt the implacable hostility of the Pope, at least his determination not to leave him in quiet and uncontested possession of the Empire. In self-defence he must seek new alliances. As Emperor now, by the judgement, he might suppose, of the God of battles, it was his duty to maintain the rights of the Empire, and those rights comprehended at least the cities of Lombardy. Robert of Naples aimed manifestly, if not undisguisedly, at the kingdom of
June 13, 1323. Italy: it was rumoured that he had assumed the royal title. The Pope had proclaimed him Vicar of

^k Compare the account of the battle in Boehmer, *Fontes Rerum Germ.* i. p. 161, and Joannes Victorinus, *ibid.* p. 893.

^m There is a strange story in the *Lib. de Duc. Bavarie* (apud Boehmer,

Fontes), that Louis, after the battle, sent letters of submission to the Pope, which were falsified by his Chancellor, Ulrich of Augsburg, as those of Frederick II. had been by Peter de Vine. —*Fontes*, i. 142.

the vacant Empire. The Cardinal Legate was in person combating at the head of the armies which were to subdue all Lombardy to the sway of the Vicar or King. Louis entered into engagements with his Ghibelline subjects. His ambassador, Count Bertholdt de Nyffen,^a sent an admonition to the Cardinal Legate at Piacenza to commit no further hostilities on the territory of the Empire. The Cardinal replied that he held the territory in his master's name during the vacancy of the Empire; he was astonished that a Catholic prince like Louis of Bavaria should confederate with the heretical Viscontis. Eight hundred men-at-arms arrived at Milan; the city was saved from the besieging army of the Legate and the King of Naples.

The Pope resolved to crush the dangerous league growing up among the Ghibellines. On October 9, 1323, a year after the battle of Muhldorf, he instituted a process at Avignon against Louis of Bavaria. He arraigned Louis of presumption in assuming the title, and usurping the power of the King of the Romans, before the Pope had examined and given judgement on the contested election, especially in granting the Marquisate of Brandenburg to his own son. Louis was admonished to lay down all his power, to appear personally before the Court of Avignon within three months, there to receive the Papal sentence. All ecclesiastics, patriarchs, archbishops, and bishops, under pain of deprivation and forfeiture of all privileges and feuds which they held of the Church—all secular persons, under pain of excommunication and interdict—were forbidden to render further fealty or allegiance to Louis as King of the Romans; all oaths of

Pope institutes a process against Louis.

^a Joannes Victorinus, p. 393.

fealty were annulled. Louis sent ambassadors to the Court of Avignon, not to contest the jurisdiction of the Pope, but to obtain a prolongation of the period assigned for his appearance. In his apology he took bolder ground. "For ten years he had been King of the Romans; and he declared the interposition now obstructed by the Pope to be an invasion of his rights. To the charge of alliance with the Visconti he pleaded ignorance of their heretical tenets. He even ventured to retort insinuations of heresy against the Pope, as having sanctioned the betrayal of the secrets of the confessional by the Minorite friars. Finally he appealed to a General Council, at which he declared his intention to be present."^a

Yet once more he strove to soften the inexorable Pope. He had already revoked the title of Imperial Vicar borne by Galeazzo Visconti. His ambassadors presented an humble supplication to the Pope seated on his throne, for the extension of the time for his appearance at Avignon. The answer of John was even more insultingly imperious. "The Duke of Bavaria, contrary to the Pontifical decree, persisted in calling himself King of the Romans; not merely was he in league with the Visconti, but had received the homage of the Marquis of Este, who had got possession of Ferrara. They too were heretics, as were all who opposed the Pope. Louis had presumptuously disturbed Robert King of Naples in his office of Vicar of Italy, conferred on him by the Pope."^p

Against the Visconti Pope John urged on his crusade: it was a religious war. The Cardinal Legate was defeated with great loss before Lodi. The Papal General,

^a Dated Nuremberg, Oct. 1323.

^p Raynaldus, Jan. 5, 1324.

Raymond de Cardona, was attacked and made prisoner near Vaprio: he was taken to Milan, but made his escape to Monza, afterwards to Avignon. Capture of the Papal General According to one account, Galeazzo Visconti had conspired at the flight of Cardona. The General declared at Avignon that it was vain to attempt the subjugation of the Visconti, but that Galeazzo was prepared to hold Milan for himself with fifteen hundred men-at-arms, subject to the Pope.¹ John would have consented to this compact with the heretical Visconti, but he could not act without the consent of the King of Naples. Robert demanded that the Visconti should join with all their forces to expel the Emperor from Italy. The wily Visconti sought to be master himself, not to create a King in Italy. He broke off abruptly the secret negotiations, and applied himself to strengthen the fortifications and the castle of Milan.

The war was again a fierce crusade against heretical and contumacious enemies of the Pope and of religion. A new anathema was launched Excommunication of Galeazzo Visconti. against the Visconti, reciting at length all their heresies, in which, except their obstinate Ghibellinism, it is difficult to detect the heresy. It was asserted that the grandmother of Matteo Visconti and two other females of his house had been burned for that crime. Matteo, now dead, laboured under suspicion of having denied the resurrection of the body. Galeazzo was thought to be implicated in this hereditary guilt. The rest of the charges were more likely to be true: acts of atrocious tyranny, sacrileges perpetrated during war, which they had dared to wage against the Legate of the Pope.

Merigla, l. iii. c. 27. *B. I. t.* xii. *Muratori*, *Ann. d' Italia*, sub ann. 1324.

The Pope proceeded to the excommunication of Louis of Bavaria. Twice had he issued his process; the two months were passed; Louis had not appeared. On the 21st of March the sentence was promulgated with all its solemn formalities. Excommunication was not all: still severer penalties awaited him if he did not present himself in humility at the footstool of the Papal throne within three weeks. By this Bull all prelates and ecclesiastics were forbidden to render him allegiance as King of the Romans; all cities and commonalties and private persons, though pardoned for their contumacy up to the present time, were under ban for all future acts of fealty; all oaths were annulled. The Bull of excommunication was affixed to the cathedral doors of Avignon, and ordered to be published by the ecclesiastical Electors of Germany.^r

Pope John had yet but partially betrayed his ultimate purpose—no less than to depose Louis of Bavaria, and to transfer the Imperial crown to the King of France. Another son of Philip the Fair, Philip the Long, had died without male issue. Charles the Fair, the last of the unblest race, had sought, immediately on his accession, a divorce from his adulterous wife, Blanche of Bourbon.^s The canon law admitted not this cause for the dissolution of the sacrament, but it could be declared null by the arbitrary will of the Pope on the most distant consanguinity between the parties. Yet this marriage had taken place under a Papal dispensation; a new subterfuge must be sought: it was

^r Shroek, p. 71. Oehlenschläger, sub ann.

^s It was reported that Blanche of Bourbon continued her licentious life

in her prison in Châteaueu-Gaillard. She was pregnant by her keeper, or by some one else.—Continuat. Nangia.

luckily found that Clement V., in his dispensation, had left unnoticed some still more remote spiritual relationship. Charles the Fair was empowered to marry again. His consort was the daughter of the Emperor Henry of Luxemburg. A Papal dispensation removed the objection of as close consanguinity as in the former case—a dispensation easily granted, for the connexion, if not suggested by the Pope, singularly agreed with his ambitious policy. It broke the Luxemburg party, the main support of Louis of Bavaria; it carried over the suffrage of the chivalrous but versatile John of Bohemia, son of the Emperor Henry, the brother of the Queen of France. John of Bohemia appeared with his uncle, the Archbishop of Treves, and took part in all the rejoicings at the coronation of his sister in ^{Pentecost, 1323.} Paris. His son was married, still more to rivet the bond of union, to a French princess; his younger son sent to be educated at the Court of France. Charles the Fair came to Toulouse to preside over the Floral Games: thence he proceeded to Avignon. The Pope, the King of France, King Robert of Naples, met to partition out the greater part of Christendom—to France the Empire, to Robert the Kingdom of Italy.

But the avowed determination to wrest the Empire from Germany roused a general opposition beyond the Rhine. Louis held a Diet, early ^{Germany.} in the spring, at Frankfort. The proclamation issued from this Diet was in a tone of high defiance.¹ It taunted John, “who called himself the XXII., as the

¹ The long document may be read in Baluzius, *Vitæ Pap. Aven.* i p. 478, *et seqq*; imperfectly in Raynaldus, *sub ann.* 1324 about April 24. Another protest, in Aventinus, *Annal.* Boic., and in Goldastus, dated at Ratisbon, Aug. (*Christus Servator Domini*), is not authentic, according to Ochlenschläger and Boehmer, *Regesta*, p. 42.

enemy of peace, and as deliberately inflaming war in the Empire for the aggrandisement of the Papacy." "He had been so blinded by his wickedness as to abuse one of the keys of St. Peter, binding where he should loose, loosening where he should bind. He had condemned as heretics many pious and blameless Catholics, whose only crime was their attachment to the Empire." "He will not remember that Constantine drew forth the Pope Silvester from a cave in which he lay hid, and in his generous prodigality bestowed all the liberty and honour possessed by the Church. In return, the successor of Silvester seeks by every means to destroy the holy Empire and her true vassals." The protest examined at great length all the proceedings of the Pope, his disputing the election of Louis at Frankfort by the majority of the Electors and the coronation of Louis at Aix-la-Chapelle; his absolution of the vassals of the Empire from their oaths, "a wicked procurement of perjury! the act not of a Vicar of Christ, but of a cruel and lawless tyrant!" It further denies the right of the Pope to assume the government of the Empire during a vacancy, as utterly without ground or precedent. Moreover, "the Pope had attacked Christ himself, his ever blessed Mother, and the Holy Apostles, by rejecting the evangelic doctrine of absolute poverty."^a

The last sentence divulged the quarter from which

^a "Non susecit in Impetum . . . in ipsum Dominum Jesum Christum Regem Regum, et Dominum Dominorum, Principem Regum terrarum, et ejus sanctissimam matrem, quæ ejusdem voti et status cum filio in observantiâ paupertatis vivit, et sanctum Apostolorum collegium ipsorum denigrando

vitam et actus insurgeret, et in doctrinam evangelicam de paupertate altissimâ . . . quod fundamentum non solum suâ malâ vitâ et a mundi contemptu alienâ conatur evertere et hæretico dogmate, et venenatâ doctrinâ," &c. &c.—P 494.

came forth this fearless manifesto. The Spiritual Franciscans were throughout Germany become the staunch allies of the Pope's enemy. Men of ^{Spiritualists for the Emperor.} the profoundest learning began with intrepid diligence to examine the whole question of the Papal power—men who swayed the populace began to fill their ears with denunciations of Papal ambition, arrogance, wealth. The Dominicans, of course adverse to the Franciscans, tried in vain to stem the torrent; for all the higher clergy, the wealthier monks in Germany, were now united with the barefoot friars. The Pope had but two steadfast adherents, old enemies of Louis, the Bishops of Passau and Strasburg. No one treated the King of the Romans as under excommunication. The Canons of Freisingen refused to receive a Bishop, an adherent of the Pope. The Dominicans at Ratisbon and Landshut closed their churches; the people refused them all alms; they were compelled by hunger to resume their services. Many cities ignominiously expelled those prelates who would publish the Papal Bull. At Strasburg a priest who attempted to fix it on the doors of the cathedral was thrown into the Rhine. The Dominicans who refused to perform divine service were driven from the city.*

King Charles of France, trusting in the awe of the Papal excommunications and the ardent promises of the King of Bohemia, advanced in great state to Bar-sur-Aube, where he expected some of ^{July, 1324.} the Electors and a great body of the Princes of Germany to appear and lay the Imperial crown at his feet. Leopold of Austria came alone. The German Queen of France had died, in premature childbirth, at Issoudon,

* Burgundi, Hist. Bavar. ii. 86.

on the return of the Court from Avignon.⁷ The connexion was dissolved which bound the King of Bohemia to the French interest: on the other side of the Rhine he had become again a German. He wrote to the Pope that he could not consent to despoil the German Princes of their noblest privilege, the election to the Empire. The ecclesiastical Electors stood aloof. Leopold was resolved at any price to revenge himself on Louis of Bavaria, and to rescue his brother Frederick from captivity.⁸ The King of France advanced thirty thousand marks to enable him to keep up the war. At the same time the Pope issued a fourth process against Louis of Bavaria: he was cited to appear at Avignon in October. All ecclesiastics who had acknowledged the King were declared under suspension and excommunication; all laymen under interdict. The Archbishop of Magdeburg was commanded to publish the Bull.⁹

On the other hand, at the wedding of Louis of Bavaria with the daughter of William of Holland at Cologne, John of Bohemia and the three ecclesiastical Electors had vouchsafed their presence. In a Diet at Feb 23, 1324.
Diet of Ratis-
bon. Ratisbon Louis laid before the States of the Empire his proclamation against the Pope, and his

⁷ She died April 1324. July 5, Charles married his cousin-german, the daughter of Louis, Count of Evreux. The Pope, in other cases so difficult, shocked the pious by permitting this marriage of cousins-german.

⁸ See in Albert. Argent. (apud Urstisium) the dealings of Leopold with a famous necromancer, who promised to deliver Frederick from prison. The devil appeared to Frederick as a poor scholar, offering to transport him

away in a cloth. Frederick made the sign of the cross, the devil disappeared. Frederick entreated his guards to give him some reliques, and to pray that he should not be conjured out of captivity.—P. 123.

⁹ July 13. Villani, ix. 234. Martine, Anecd. Oehlschlager, Urkundenbuch, xlii. 106. Raynaldi (imperfect), The Pope condemns Louis as the fautor of those heretics, Milano of Lombardy, Missilio of Padua, John of Ghent,

appeal to a General Council. Not one of the States refused its adherence; the Papal Bulls against the Emperor were rejected, those who dared to publish them banished. The Archbishop of Saltzburg was declared an enemy of the Empire.^b Even Leopold of Austria made advances towards reconciliation. He sent the imperial crown and jewels to Louis; he only urged the release of his brother from captivity.

Louis, infatuated by his success, refused these overtures. But the gold of France began to work. Leopold was soon at the head of a powerful Austrian and German force. Louis was obliged to break up the siege of Burgau and take to flight, with the loss of his camp, munitions, and treasures. The feeble German princes again looked towards France. A great meeting was held at Rhense near Coblenz. The Electors of Mentz and Cologne, with Leopold of Austria, met the ambassadors of the Pope and of Charles of France. The election of the King of France to the Empire was proposed, almost carried.^c Berthold of Bucheck, the commander of the Teutonic Order at Coblenz, rose. He appealed with great eloquence to the German pride. "Would they, to gratify the arbitrary passions of the Pope, inflict eternal disgrace on the German Empire, and elect a foreigner to the throne?" Some attempt was made to compromise the dispute by the election of the King of France only for his life; but the Germans were too keen-sighted and suspicious to fall into this snare.

Louis had learned wisdom. The only safe course was reconciliation with his rival; and Frederick of Austria had pined too long in prison not to accede to any terms

^b Aug. Boehmer seems to doubt the Diet of Ratisbon.

^c Albert Argent. Raynald, sub ann. Schmidt, Simonelli, p. 438

of release. Louis visited his captive at Trausnitz: the terms were easily arranged between parties so eager for a treaty. Frederick surrendered all right and title to the Empire; Leopold gave up all which his house had usurped from the Empire; he and his brothers were to swear eternal fealty to Louis, against every one, priest or layman, by name against him who called himself Pope. Certain counts and knights were to guarantee the treaty. Burgau and Reisenberg were to be surrendered to Bavaria; Stephen, son of Louis, was to marry Elizabeth, daughter of Frederick.

The Pope and the Austrian party were alike astounded by this sudden pacification. The Pope at once declared the treaty null and void. Leopold rushed to arms. But the highminded Frederick would not stoop to a breach of faith. He had but to utter his wish, and the Pope had absolved him from all his oaths. They were already declared null, as sworn to an excommunicated person, and therefore of no validity. The Pope forbade him to return to prison;^a but he published letters declaring his surrender of his title to the Empire, admonished his brother to desist from hostilities, and endeavoured to reconcile the Pope with Louis. He had sworn to more than he could fulfil: he returned to Munich to offer himself again as a prisoner. There was a strife of generosity; the rivals became the closest friends, ate at the same table, slept in the same bed.^b The Pope wrote to the King of France, expressing his utter astonishment at this strange and incredible German honesty.^c

^a Bull "Ad nostrum," Raynald. sub ann. Oehlenschläger.

^b See the authorities in Schmidt, p. 265.

^c "Familiaritas et amicitia illorum ducum incredibilis,"—Raynald, sub ann. Read Schiller's fine lines, *Deutsche Traue*, Werke, b. ix. p. 199.

The friends agreed to cancel the former treaty—a new one was made. Both, as one person, were to have equal right and title to the Empire, to be brothers, and each alike King of the Romans and administrator of the Empire. On every alternate day the names of Louis and of Frederick should take precedence in the instruments of state; no weighty affairs were to be determined but by common consent; the great fiefs to be granted, homage received, by both; if one set out for Italy, the other was to rule in Germany. There was to be one common Imperial Judge, one Secretary of State. The seat of government was to change every half or quarter of a year. There were to be two great seals; on that of Louis the name of Frederick, on that of Frederick the name of Louis stood first. The two Princes swore before their confessors to keep their oath: ten great vassals were the witnesses.

This singular treaty was kept secret; as it transpired, all parties, except the Austrian, broke out into dissatisfaction.⁵ The Electors declared it an invasion of their rights. The Pope condemned the impiety of Frederick in daring to enter into this intimate association with one under excommunication. Another plan was proposed, that Louis should rule in Italy, Frederick in Germany. This was more perilous to the Pontiff: he wrote to Charles of France to reprove him for his sluggishness and inactivity in the maintenance of his own interests.

The Austrian party under Leopold began to hope that as Louis was proscribed by the inexorable hatred of the Pope, his Holiness would be persuaded to acknowledge Frederick. The Archbishops of

Death of
Leopold of
Austria.

⁵ Villani, ix. c. 34. Schmidt, p. 265.

Mentz and Cologne, and their brothers the Counts of Bucheck and Virneburg, repaired to Avignon. Duke Albert, the brother of Frederick and of Leopold, urged this conclusion. But the Pope was too deeply pledged by his passions and by his promises to Charles of France: the Austrians obtained only bland and unmeaning words. The death of Leopold of Austria, before the great Diet of the Empire, summoned to Spires, seemed at once to quench the strife. Frederick withdrew from the contest. Louis of Bavaria met the Diet as undisputed Emperor; he even ventured to communicate his determination to descend into Italy, his long-meditated plan of long-provoked vengeance against the Pope. There were some faint murmurs among the ecclesiastical Electors that he was still under the ban of excommunication. "That ban," rejoined Louis, "yourselves have taught me to despise: to the pious and learned Italians it is even more despicable."^a

Louis of Bavaria, now that Germany, if it acknowledged not, yet acquiesced in his kingly title, determined to assert his imperial rights in Italy. The implacable Pope compelled him to seek allies in all quarters, and to carry on the contest wherever he might hope for success. None of the great German feudatories obeyed the summons to attend him. They were bound by their fealty to appear at his coronation in Rome, but that coronation they might think remote and doubtful. The Prelates, the ecclesiastical

^a Trithemius, Chron. Hirsch. Boehmer observes, "Weder eine urkunde noch ein gleichzeitiger auf diese That-sache hindeuten." He therefore rejects the whole. But are not the "ur-

kunde" very imperfectly preserved, and the writers few and uncertain in their notice of events? It is of no great historic consequence. The leading facts are certain.

Electors, would hardly accompany one still under excommunication. An embassy to Avignon, demanding that orders should be given for his coronation, was dismissed with silent scorn. But the Ghibelline chieftains eagerly pressed his descent into Italy.¹ He appeared at a Diet of the great Lombard feudatories at Trent, with few troops and still more scanty munitions of war. He found around him three of the Vis-^{At Trent, Jan. Feb. 1327.}contis, Galeazzo, Marco, Luchino, the Marquises of Este, Rafaello and Obizzo, Passerino Lord of Mantua, Candella Scala Lord of Verona, Vicenza, Feltre, and Belluno. Della Scala had an escort of 600 horse, his body-guard against the Duke of Carinthia, with whom he was contesting Padua. There were ambassadors from Pisa, from the Genoese exiles, from Castruccio of Lucca, and the King of Sicily. All were prodigal in their vows of loyalty, and even prodigal in act.^k They offered 150,000 florins of gold. The tidings of this supply brought rapidly down considerable bands of German adventurers around the standard of Louis.

Louis relied not on arms alone, nor on the strength and fidelity of the Italian Ghibellines. A war^{War of writings.} had long been waging; and now his dauntless and even fanatical champions were prepared to wage that religious war in public opinion to the last extremity. He was accompanied by Marsilio of Padua, and by John of Jaudun.^m These men had already thrown down the gauntlet to the world in defence of the Imperial against the Papal supremacy.

Marsilio of Padua was neither ecclesiastic nor lawyer,

¹ Cortesius apud Muratori, R. I. S. xii. 839. Albertus Mussatus, *Fontes*, p. 172

^k "Multis gravis æris dispensis."—Albert Mussato.

^m In Champagne, sometimes erroneously called John of Ghent.

he was the King's physician; but in profound theological learning as in dialectic skill surpassed by few of his age. Three years before, Marsilio had published his famous work, 'The Defender of Peace.' The title itself was a quiet but severe sarcasm against the Pope; it arraigned him as the irreconcilable enemy of peace. This grave and argumentative work, if to us of inconceivable prolixity (though to that of William of Ockham it is light and rapid reading), advanced and maintained tenets which, if heard for centuries in Christendom, had been heard only from obscure and fanatic heretics, mostly mingled up with wild and obnoxious opinions, or, as in the strife with the Lawyers or concerning the memory of Boniface, with fierce personal charges.

The first book discusses, with great depth and dialectic subtlety, the origin and principles of government. In logic and in thought the author is manifestly a severe Aristotelian. The second establishes the origin, the principles, the limits of the sacerdotal power." Marsilio takes his firm and resolute stand on the sacred Scriptures, or rather on the Gospel; he distinctly repudiates the dominant Old Testament interpretation of the New. The Gospel is the sole authoritative law of Christianity; the rule for the interpretation of those Scriptures rests not with any one priest or college of priests; it requires no less than the assent and sanction

"*Mos legem Deus tradidit observandum in statu vite presentis, ad contentiones humanas evimendas, præcepta talium specialiter continentem, et ad hoc proportionaliter se habentem humanæ legi quantum ad aliquam sui partem. Verum hujus-*

modi præcepta in Evangelicâ lege non tradidit Christus, sed tradita vel tradenda supposuit in humanis legibus, quas observari et principantibus secundum eas omnem animam humanam obedire præcipit, in his saltem quod non adversaretur legi salutis."—P. 215.

of a General Council. These Scriptures gave no coercive power whatever, no secular jurisdiction to the Bishop of Rome, or to any other bishop or priest. The sacerdotal order was instituted to instruct the people in the truths of the Gospel and for the administration of the Sacraments. It is only by usage that the clergy are called the Church, by recent usage the Bishop of Rome and the Cardinals. The true Church is the whole assembly of the faithful. The word "spiritual" has in like manner been usurped by the priesthood; all Christians, as Christians, are spiritual. The third chapter states fairly and fully the scriptural grounds alleged for the sacerdotal and papal pretensions: they are submitted to calm but rigid examination.* The question is not what power was possessed by Christ as God and man, but what he conferred on the apostles, what descended to their successors the bishops and presbyters; what he forbade them to assume; what is meant by the power of the keys. "God alone remits sins, the priest's power is only declaratory." The illustration is the case of the leper in the Gospels healed by Christ, declared healed by the priest.[†] He admits what is required by the Sacrament of Penance, and some power of commuting the pains of purgatory (this, as well as transubstantiation, he distinctly asserts) for temporal penalties. But eternal damnation is by God alone, for God alone is above ignorance and partial affection, to which all priests, even the Pope, are subject. Crimes for which a man is to be excommunicated are not to be judged by a priest or college of priests, but by the whole body of

* Innocent's famous similitude of the sun and moon is, I think, alone omitted, no doubt in disdain.

† He has another illustration. The

priest is the jailor, who has no judicial power, though he may open and shut the door of the prison.

the faithful.^a The clergy have no coercive power even over heretics, Jews or infidels. Judgement over them is by Christ alone, and in the other world. They are to be punished by the temporal power if they offend against human statutes.* The immunities of the clergy from temporal jurisdiction are swept away as irreconcilable with the absolute supremacy of the State. If the clergy were entirely withdrawn from temporal authority, all would rush into the order, especially since Boniface VIII. extended the clerical privilege to those who had the simple tonsure. Poverty with contempt of the world was the perfection taught by Christ and his apostles, and therefore the indelible characteristic of all bishops and priests. Now the clergy accumulate vast wealth, bestow or bequeath it to their heirs, or lavish it on horses, servants, banquets, the vanity and voluptuousness of the world. Marsilio does not, with the rigour of Spiritual Franciscanism, insist on absolute mendicancy: sustenance the clergy might have, and no more; with that they should be content. Tithes are a direct usurpation. The Apostles were all equal; the Saviour is to be believed rather than old tradition, which invested St. Peter with coercive power over the other Apostles. Still more do the Decretals err, that the

^a "Universitas Fidelium," p. 208.

* This is remarkable. "Quod si humanâ lege prohibitum fuerit, hæreticum aut aliter infidelem in regione manere, qui talis in ipsâ repertus fuerit, tanquam *legis humanæ transgressor* eâdem poenâ vel supplicio huic transgressioni eâdem lege statutis, in hoc sæculo, debet acceri. Si vero aërationem aut aliter infidelem commorari fidelibus eâdem provincia non

fuerit prohibitum humana lege, quemadmodum hæreticis et semini Judæorum seu humanis legibus permissum extitit etiam temporibus Christianorum populorum principum atque pontificum, dico culpam non licere hæreticum vel aliter infidelem quenquam judicare vel arcere poenâ vel supplicio reali aut personali pro statu vitæ præsentis."—P. 217.

Bishop of Rome has authority over the temporalities, not only of the clergy, but of emperors and kings. The Bishop of Rome can in no sense be called the successor of St. Peter: first, because no apostle was appointed by the divine law over any peculiar people or land; secondly, because he was at Antioch before Rome. Paul, it is known, was at Rome two years. He, if any one, having taught the Romans, was Bishop of Rome: it cannot be shown from the Scriptures that St. Peter was Bishop of Rome, or that he was ever at Rome. It is incredible that if he were at Rome before St. Paul, he should not be mentioned either by St. Paul or by St. Luke in the Acts.* Constantine the Great first emancipated the priesthood from the coercive authority of the temporal prince, and gave some of them dignity and power over other bishops and churches. But the Pope has no power to decree any article of faith as necessary to salvation.† The Bull therefore of Boniface VIII. ("Unam Sanctam") was false and injurious to all mankind beyond all imaginable falsehood." A General Council alone could decide such questions, and General Councils could only be summoned by the civil sovereigns. The primacy of the Bishop of Rome was no more than this: that having consulted with the clergy on such or on other important matters, he might petition the sovereign to summon a General Council, preside, and with the full consent of the Council draw up and enact laws.

* It is curious to find this argument so well put in the fourteenth century.

† The author examines the famous saying ascribed to St. Augustine, "Ego vero non crederem Evangelio, nisi me Catholicæ Ecclesiæ commoveret auctoritas." He meant the

testimony of the Church (the collective body of Christians) that these writings really proceeded from Apostles and Evangelists.

"Cunctis civiliter viventibus præjudicialissimum omnium excogitabilem falsorum."—P. 258.

As to the coronation of the Emperor at Rome, and the confirmation of his election by the Pope, the first was a ceremony in which the Pope had no more power than the Archbishop of Rheims at the anointing of the Kings of France. The simplicity alone, not to say the pusillanimity, of certain Emperors had permitted the Bishops of Rome to transmute this innocent usage into an arbitrary right of ratifying the election; and so of making the choice of the seven Electors of as little value as that of the meanest of mankind.*

The third book briefly draws forty-one conclusions from the long argument. Among these were,—the Decretals of the Popes can inflict no temporal penalty unless ratified by the civil Sovereign; there is no power of dispensation in marriages; the temporal power may limit the number of the clergy as of churches; no canonisation can take place but by a General Council; a General Council may suspend or depose a Bishop of Rome.

The 'Defender of Peace' was but one of several writings in the same daring tone. There was a second by Marsilio of Padua on the Translation of the Empire. Another was ascribed, but erroneously, to John of Jaudun, on the nullity of the proceedings of Pope John against Louis of Bavaria. Above all the famous Schoolman, William of Ockham, composed two works (one in "ninety days") of an enormous prolixity and of an intense subtlety, such as might, according to our notions, have palled on the dialectic passions of the most pugnacious university, or exhausted the patience of the most laborious monk in the most drowsy

* "Tantum enim septem transires aut lippi possent Romano Regi auctoritatem tribuere."

cloister.⁷ But no doubt there were lighter and more inflammatory addresses poured in quick succession into the popular ear by the Spiritual Franciscans, and by all who envied, coveted, hated, or conscientiously believed the wealth of the clergy fatal to their holy office—by all who saw in the Pope a political despot or an Antichrist. At Trent, Louis of Bavaria and his fearless counsellors declared the Pope a heretic, exhibited sixteen articles against him, and spoke of him as James the Priest.

So set forth another German Emperor, unwarned, apparently ignorant of all former history, to run the same course as his predecessors—a triumphant passage through Italy, a jubilant reception in Rome, a splendid coronation, the creation of an Antipope; then dissatisfaction, treachery, revolt among his partisans, soon weary of the exactions wrung from them, but which were absolutely necessary to maintain the idle pageant; his German troops wasting away with their own excesses and the uncongenial climate, and cut off by war or fever; an ignominious retreat quickening into flight; the wonder of mankind sinking at once into contempt; the mockery and scoffing joy of his inexorable foes.

From Trent Louis of Bavaria, with six hundred German horse, passed by Bergamo, and arrived at Como; from thence, his forces gathering as he advanced, he entered Milan. At Pentecost he was crowned in the Church of St. Ambrose. The Archbishop of Milan was an exile. Three excommunicated Bishops (Federico di Maggi of Brescia, Guido Tarlati the turbulent Prelate of Arezzo, and

Louis in
Italy.
March 15.
March 18.
March 23.
May 17
May 30.

⁷ The two, the *Dialogus*, and the *Opus Nonaginta Dierum*, which comprehends the *Compendium Errorum* | Papae, occupy nearly 1000 pages, printed in the very closest type, in *Gothland Monarchia*, vol. ii. p. 813 to 1235.

Henry of Trent) set the Iron Crown on the head of the

King of the Romans: his wife, Margarita, was
At Milan. crowned with a diadem of gold. Can della

Scala was present with fifteen hundred horse, and most of the mighty Ghibelline chieftains. Galeazzo Visconti was confirmed as Imperial Vicar of Milan, Pavia, Lodi,

July 7. Vercelli; but hardly two months had elapsed

when Galeazzo was arrested, imprisoned, threatened with the loss of his head, if Monza was not surrendered. The commander of the castle hesitated, but was forced to yield. The cause of this quarrel is not quite certain. The needy Bavarian pressed for the full payment of the covenanted contribution. Galeazzo, it is said, haughtily replied that the Emperor must wait his time.^a Galeazzo knew that Milan groaned under his exactions. Two of his own brothers were weary of Galeazzo's tyranny. Louis at once caught at popularity, and released himself from the burthen of gratitude, from the degrading position of being his vassal's vassal. The Visconti was therefore cast into prison,^a all his proud house were compelled to seek concealment; but it was a fatal blow to the party of Louis. The Ghibelline tyrants had hoped to rule under the name of the Emperor, not to be ruled by him.^b The Guelf secretly rejoiced: "God is slaying our enemies by our enemies."

Louis having extorted 200,000 florins from Milan and

Aug. 13. the other cities, advanced unopposed towards

At Lucca.

Sept. 8.

Tuscany. He was received with great pomp by Castruccio of Lucca, but imperialist Pisa closed her

^a Villani, *Monigia*, lib. Modest. R. I. S. t. xxii.

^a "Interim Galeaz superbum atque insolentem, ac facie recusantem in altum profundum carcerem detrudi

nervoque pedes astrungi fecit."—Albert Mussat.—P. 775.

^b "Animadversio hæc a Ludovico in Vice Comites facta tyrannis ceteris Lombardias ingentes terrores incussit."—Ib.

gates against the ally of her deadly enemy; nor till after she had suffered a long siege was Pisa compelled to her old obedience: she paid heavily for her brief disloyalty.^c This was the only resistance encountered by the Bavarian. The Pope meanwhile had launched in vain, and for a fifth time, his spiritual thunders. For his impious acts at Trent, Louis was declared to have forfeited all fiefs he held of the Church or of the Empire, especially the Dukedom of Bavaria. He was again cited to appear before the judgement-seat at Avignon, to receive due penalty for his sins; all Christians were enjoined to withhold every act of obedience from him as ruler.^d But no Guelfic chieftain, no State or city, stood forward to head the crusade commanded by the Pope. Florence remained aloof, though under the Duke of Calabria; the proceedings of the Pope against Louis of Bavaria were published by the Cardinal Orsini. Her only act was the burning, by the Inquisitor, of the astrologer, Cecco d'Ascoli, whose wild predictions were said to have foreshown the descent of the Bavarian and the aggrandisement of Castruccio. Cecco's book, according to the popular statement, ascribed all human events to the irresistible influence of the stars. The stars themselves were subject to the enchantments of malignant spirits. Christ came into the world under that fatal necessity, lived a coward life, and died his inevitable death. Under the same planetary force, Antichrist was to come in gorgeous apparel and great power.^e

At Pisa.
Nov. 1

April 3,
1327.

^c "E bisognavagli però ch' ella e sua gente erano molto poveri."—Villani.

^d Apud Martene, p. 471.

^e Villani, cxxxix. Compare de Sade, Vie de Pétrarque, i. p. 48. He says

that there is in the Vatican a MS., "Profetia di Cecco d'Ascoli." I have examined, I will not say read, Cecco's poem, "L'Acerba," half astrology half natural history, and must sub-

Rome had already sent a peremptory summons to the Pope to return and take up his residence in the sacred city. If he did not obey, they threatened to receive the King of Bavaria. A Court they would have · if not the Pope's, that of the Emperor. The Pope replied with unmeaning promises and solemn admonitions against an impious alliance with the persecutor of the Church.¹ The Romans had no faith in his promises, and despised his counsels. · Napoleon Orsini and Stephen Colonna, both in the interests of Robert of Naples, were driven from the city. Sciarra Colonna, a name fatal to Popes, was elected Captain of the people.

Sept. 23. A large Neapolitan force landed at Ostia, and broke into the Leonine city. The bell of the Capitol tolled, the city rose, the invaders were repelled with great slaughter.

From Pisa, where he had forced a contribution of 200,000 florins, 20,000 from the clergy, Louis of Bavaria made a winter march over the Maremma to Viterbo. His partisans (Sciarra Colonna, Jacopo Savelli, Tebaldo di St. Eustazio) were masters of the city. To soothe the people they sent ambassadors to demand certain terms. Louis ordered Castruccio, Lord of Lucca, to reply. Castruccio signed to the trumpeters to sound the advance. "This is the answer of my Lord the Emperor." In five days Louis was

scribe to De Sade's verdict: "S'il n'étoit pas plus sçavoir que poëte, comme il y a apparence, on lui fit grande injustice en le brûlant."—P 50. There are, however, some curious passages in which he attacks Dante, not, as Pignotti (v. iii. p. 1) unfairly says, thinking himself a better poet,

but reprehending his philosophical doctrines—

"In cio percasti, fiorentin poeta,
Ponendo che gli ben della fortuna
Necessitate sieno con lor mèta.

* * * * *
Fortuna non à altro che disposto
Cielo, che dispone cosa animata," &c.
—P xxxv.; see also iii.

Albert Mussato, p. 173.

within the city; there was no opposition; his advent was welcomed, it was said, like that of God.^r His march had been swelled by numbers: the city was crowded with swarms of the Spiritual Franciscans; with all who took part with their General, Michael di Cesena, against the Pope; with the Fraticelli; with the poorer clergy, who desired to reduce the rest to their own poverty, or who were honestly or hypocritically possessed with the fanaticism of mendicancy. The higher and wealthier, as well of the clergy as of the monastic Orders, and even the friars, withdrew in fear or disgust before this democratic inroad. The churches were closed, the convents deserted, hardly a bell tolled, the services were scantily performed by schismatic or excommunicated priests.

Yet the procession to the coronation of Louis of Bavaria was as magnificent as of old. The Emperor passed through squadrons of at least ^{Coronation. Sunday, Jan. 17.} five thousand horse; the city had decked itself in all its splendour; there was an imposing assemblage of the nobles on the way from S. Maria Maggiore to St. Peter's; but at the coronation the place of the Pope or of delegated Cardinals was ill supplied by the Bishop of Venetia and the Bishop of Aleria, known only as under excommunication. The Count of the Lateran Palace was wanting: Castruccio was invested with that dignity. Castruccio (clad in a crimson vest, embroidered in front with the words, "Tis he whom God wills," behind, "He will be whatever God wills") was afterwards created, amid loud popular applause, Senator and Impe-

^r "Populus Romanus ut Deo ab excelsis veniente, gavisus illam linguâ alacritatibus, præconiorumque applausibus excepit."—Albert Musæus, S. G. I. p. 772.

rial Vicar of Rome. Three laws were promulgated: one for the maintenance of the Catholic faith, one on the revenues due to the clergy (a vain attempt to propitiate their favour), one in defence of widows and orphans.

Louis could not pause: he was but half avenged upon his implacable enemy. He was not even secure; so long as John was Pope, he was not Emperor; he was under the ban of excommunication. He had been driven to extremity; there was no extremity to which he must not proceed. He had not satisfied nor paid the price of their attachment to his Mendicant partisans. On the Place before St. Peter's Church was erected a lofty stage. The Emperor ascended and took

April 18.

his seat on a gorgeous throne: he wore the purple robes, the Imperial crown; in his right hand he bore the golden sceptre, in his left the golden apple. Around him were Prelates, Barons, and armed Knights; the populace filled the vast space. A brother of the Order of the Eremites advanced on the stage, and cried aloud, "Is there any Procurator who will defend the Priest James of Cahors, who calls himself Pope John XXII.?" Thrice he uttered the summons; no answer was made. A learned Abbot of Germany mounted the stage, and made a long sermon in eloquent Latin, on the text, "This is the day of good tidings." The topics were skilfully chosen to work upon the turbulent audience. "The holy Emperor beholding Rome, the head of the world and of the Christian faith, deprived both of her temporal and her spiritual throne, had left his own realm and his young children to restore her dignity. At Rome he had heard that James of Cahors, called Pope John, had determined to change the titles of the Cardinals, and transfer them also to Avignon

that he had proclaimed a crusade against the Roman people : therefore the Syndics of the Roman clergy, and the representatives of the Roman people, had entreated him to proceed against the said James of Cahors as a heretic, and to provide the Church and people of Rome, as the Emperor Otho had done, with a holy and faithful Pastor." He recounted eight heresies of John. Among them, "he had been urged to war against the Saracens: he had replied, 'We have Saracens enough at home.'" He had said that Christ, "whose poverty was among his perfections, held property in common with his disciples." He had declared, contrary to the Gospel, which maintains the rights of Cæsar, and asserts the Pope's kingdom to be purely spiritual, that to him (the Pope) belongs all power, temporal as well as spiritual. For these crimes, therefore, of heresy and treason, the Emperor, by the new law, and by other laws, canon and civil, removed, deprived, and cashiered the same James of Cahors from his ^{The Pope} Papal office, leaving to any one who had temporal jurisdiction to execute upon him the penalties of heresy and treason. Henceforth no Prince, Baron, or commonalty was to own him as Pope, under pain of condemnation as fautor of his treason and heresy: half the penalty was to go to the Imperial treasury, half to the Roman people.^b He, Louis of Bavaria, promised in a few days to provide a good Pope and a good Pastor

^b According to the statement of Louis, still more atrocious charges were inserted into this sentence of deposition, by Udalric of Gueldres, the Emperor's secretary. Louis being a rude soldier, ignorant of Latin, knew nothing, as he afterwards declared to

Benedict XII., of these things (Raynald, sub ann. 1336). Udalric did this out of secret enmity to the Emperor, to commit him more irretrievably with the Pope.—Mansi note on Raynaldus, 1328, c. xxxvi.

for the great consolation of the people of Rome and of all Christians.¹

But Rome was awed rather than won by this flattery to her pride. Only four days after, an ecclesiastic, James^k son of Stephen Colonna, appeared before the church of S. Marcellus, and in the presence of one thousand Romans read aloud and at full

Protest of
James
Colonna.
April 22.

length the last and most terrible process of Pope John against Louis of Bavaria. He went on to declare that "no Syndicate, representing the clergy of Rome, had addressed Louis; that Syndicate, the priests of St. Peter's, of St. John Lateran, of St. Maria Maggiore, with all the other dignified clergy and abbots, had left Rome for some months, lest they should be contaminated by the presence of persons under excommunication." He continued uninterrupted his long harangue, and then deliberately nailed the Pope's Brief on the doors of the Church of S. Marcellus. The news spread with a deep murmur through the city. Louis sent a troop to seize the daring ecclesiastic; he was gone, the populace had made no attempt to arrest him. He was afterwards rewarded by the Pope with a rich bishopric.

April 23

The next day a law was published in the presence of the senators and people, that the Pope about to be named, and all future Popes, should be bound to reside, except for three months in the year, in Rome; that he should not depart, unless with the permission of the Roman people, above two days' journey from the city. If summoned to return, and disobedient to the summons, he might be deposed and another chosen in his place.^m

¹ Apud Baluzium, ii. p. 523.

^k He was canon of the Lateran; afterwards the friend of Petrarch. See account of Petrarch's visit to him

as Bishop of Lombes.—De Sade, i 161, &c.

^m The condemnation of John XXII. to death, and his capital sentence, are

On Ascension Day the people were again summoned to the Place before St. Peter's Church. Louis May 12 appeared in all his imperial attire, with many of the lower clergy, monks, and friars. He took his seat upon the throne: the designated Pope, Peter di Corvara, sat by his side under the baldachin. The friar Nicolas di Fabriano preached on the text, "And Peter, turning, said, the Angel of the Lord hath appeared and delivered me out of the hand of Herod." The Bavarian was the angel, Pope John was Herod. The Bishop of Venetia came forward, and three times demanded whether they would have the brother Peter for the Pope of Rome. There was a loud acclamation, whether from fear, from contagious excitement, from wonder at the daring of the Emperor, or from genuine joy that they had a humble and a Roman Pope.* The Bishop read the Decree. The Emperor rose, put on the finger of the friar the ring of St. Peter, arrayed him in the pall, and saluted him by the name of Nicolas V. With the Pope on his right hand he passed into the church, where Mass was celebrated with the utmost solemnity.

Peter di Corvara was born in the Abruzzi; he belonged to the extreme Franciscan faction; a man of The Anti-
pope. that rigid austerity that no charge could be brought against him by his enemies but hypocrisy. The

asserted by Raynaldus on unpublished authority. This account is received as authentic by Boehmer, who accepts all that is against Louis and in favour of Pope John. It is more likely a version of Mussato's story of his being burned in effigy by the people, rather than confirmed by it. As a grave judicial proceeding it is highly improbable.—Raynald. sub ann.

* The people, according to Albert Mussato, demanded the deposition of John, and the elevation of a new Pope, "novum proponendum Pontificem, qui . . . sacrosanctam ecclesiam Romanam . . . in sua Roma regat . . . illum Joannem, qui trans montes sacre Ecclesie illudit, anathematizet." —Fontes, p. 175.

one imputation was, that he had lived in wedlock five years before he put on the habit of S. Francis. He took the vows without his wife's consent. She had despised the beggarly monk; she claimed restitution of conjugal rights from the wealthy Pontiff.* All this perhaps proves the fanatic sincerity of Peter, and the man that was thus put forward by a fanatic party (it is said when designated for the office he fled either from modesty or fear) must have been believed to be a fanatic. Nothing indeed but fanaticism would have given him courage to assume the perilous dignity.

The first act of Nicolas V. was to create seven Cardinals—two deposed bishops, Modena and Venetia, one deposed abbot of S. Ambrogio in Milan, Nicolas di Fabriano, two Roman popular leaders. Louis caused himself to be crowned again by his Supreme Pontiff.

But in Nicolas V. his party hoped, no doubt, to see the apostle of absolute poverty. They saw him and his Cardinals on stately steeds, the gift of the Emperor, with servants, even knights and squires: they heard that they indulged in splendid and costly banquets. The Pope bestowed ecclesiastical privileges and benefices with the lavish hand of his predecessors, it was believed at the time for payments in money.

The contest divided all Christendom. In the remotest parts were wandering friars who denounced the heresy of Pope John, asserted the cause of the Emperor and of his Antipope. In the University of Paris were men of profound thought who held the same views, and whom the ruling powers of the University were constrained to tolerate. The whole of

Contest in
Christendom.

* "Repetit Pontificem locupletem, quem tot annos spreverat mendicantem monachum."—Wading, l. vii. f. 77.

Europe seemed becoming Guelf or Ghibelline. Yet could no contest be more unequal; that it lasted, proves the vast and all-pervading influence of the Mendicants;^p for the whole strength of the Emperor and of the Antipope was in the religious movement of this small section, in the Roman populace and their Ghibelline leaders. The great Ghibelline princes were for themselves alone; if they maintained their domination over their subject cities, they cared neither for Emperor nor Pope. Against this were arrayed the ancient awe which adhered to the name of the Pope, the Pope himself elected and supported by all the Cardinals, the whole higher clergy, whose wealth hung on the issue, those among the lower clergy (and they were very many) who hated the intrusive Mendicants, the rival Order of the Dominicans, who now, however, were weakened by a schism in which the Pope had mingled, concerning the election and power of the General and Prefects of the Order. Besides these were Robert of Naples, for whom the Pope had hazarded so much, and all the Guelfs of Italy, among them most of the Roman nobles.

The tide which had so rapidly floated up Louis of Bavaria to the height of acknowledged Emperor and the creator of a new Pope, ebbed with still greater rapidity. He is accused of having wasted precious time and not advanced upon Naples to crush his defenceless rival.^q But Louis may have known the inefficient state of his own forces and of his own finances. Robert of Naples now took the aggressive: his fleet besieged

^p See a very striking passage of Albert Mussato, de Ludov. Bavar; Muratori, x. p. 775; Fontes, p. 77.

^q "Ipse Cesar segnis tanto tempore cœtit, obsesus in urbe, quod quasi

omnia expendebat." in one expedition he destroyed the castle in which Conradin was beheaded,—Albert. Argentin p. 124.

Ostia; his troops lined the frontier and cut off the supplies on which Rome partly depended for subsistence. The Emperor's military movements were uncertain and desultory; when he did move, he was in danger of starvation. The Antipope, to be of any use, ought to have combined the adored sanctity of Cœlestine V. with the vigour and audacity of Boniface VIII. The Romans, always ready to pour forth shouting crowds into the tapestried streets to the coronation of an Emperor, or the inauguration of a Pope, had now had their pageant. Their pride had quaffed its draught: languor ever follows intoxication. They began to oscillate back to their old attachments or to indifference. The excesses of the German soldiers violated their houses, scarcity raised their markets. If the Pope might now, compulsorily, take pride in his poverty (and the loss of the wealth which flowed to Rome under former Pontiffs was not the least cause of the unpopularity of the Avignonese Popes), yet the Emperor's state, the Emperor's forces must be maintained. And how maintained, but by exactions intolerable, or which they would no longer tolerate? The acts of the new government were not such as would propitiate their enemies. Two men, in the absence of the Emperor, were burned for denying Peter of Corvara to be the lawful Pope.* A straw effigy of Pope John was publicly burned, a puerile vengeance which might be supposed significant of some darker menace.†

On the 4th of August, not four months after his coronation, the Emperor turned his back on Rome, which he could no longer hold. On the following night came the Cardinal Berthold and Stephen

Louis abandoned Rome.

* Villani, c. lxxiv.

† Mussato

Colonna on the 8th, Napoleon Orsini took possession of the city. The churches were reopened; all the privileges granted by the Emperor and the Antipope annulled; their scanty archives, all their Bulls and state papers, burned: the bodies of the German soldiers dug up out of their graves and cast into the Tiber. Sciarra Colonna and his adherents took flight, carrying away all the plunder which they could seize.

Louis of Bavaria retired to Viterbo; he was accompanied by the Pope, whose pontificate, by his own law, depended on his residence in Rome. The Antipope in Viterbo. Oct. 1.

He is charged with having robbed the church of St. Fortunatus even of its lamps—the apostle of absolute poverty! Worse than this, he threatened all who should adhere to his adversary not merely with excommunication, but with the stake. He would employ against them the remedy of burning, and so of severing them from the body of the faithful.[†]

Pope John, meantime, at Avignon, having exhausted his spiritual thunders, had recourse to means of defence seemingly more consistent with the successor of Christ's Apostles. He commanded intercessory supplications to be offered in all churches: at Avignon forms of prayer in the most earnest and solemn language were used, entreating God's blessing on the Church, his malediction on her contumacious enemies. His prayers might seem to be accepted. The more powerful of the Ghibelline chieftains came to a disastrous end. Passerino, the crafty tyrant of Mantua, was surprised by a conspiracy of the Gonzago, instigated by Can della Scala, and slain; his son was cast alive to perish in a tower, into which Passerino had thrown the victims of his own

[†] "Aduersionis et præcisionis remedium."—Apud Raynaldum, c. lii.

vengeance. The excommunicated Bishop of Forlì died by a terrible death; Galeazzo Visconti, so lately Lord of Milan and of seven other great cities, died in poverty, a mercenary soldier in the army of Castruccio. Castruccio himself, if, as is extremely doubtful, Louis could

have depended on his fidelity (for Castruccio, Sept. 3 Master of Pisa, was negotiating with Florence), seemingly his most powerful support, died of a fever."

Pisa, of which Castruccio had become Lord, and Sept. 21. which the Emperor scrupled not to wrest from Louis at his sons (Castruccio's dying admonition Pisa to them had been to make haste and secure that city), became the head-quarters of Louis and his Antipope. Nicolas V. continued to issue his edicts anathematising the so-called Pope, inveighing against the deposed James of Cahors, against Robert of Naples and the Florentines. But the thunders of an acknowledged Pope made no deep impression on the Italians: those of so questionable a Pontiff were heard with utter apathy. The Ghibellines were already weary of an Emperor whose only Imperial power seemed to be to levy onerous taxes upon them, with none of gratifying their vengeance on the Guelfs. Gradually they fell off. The Marquises of Este made their peace with the Pope. Azzo, the son of Galeazzo Visconti, having purchased his release from the Court of the Emperor at the price of 60,000 florins,* returned to Milan as Imperial Vicar; but before long the Visconti began to enter into secret correspondence with Avignon; they submitted to the humiliation of being absolved, on their penitence, from the crime of heresy, and of receiving back their dignity

* Albert Mussato, in Ludov. Bavar. Villani, lxxxv.

† 125,000. Villani, x. c. 117.

as a grant from the Pope.* The Pope appointed John Visconti Cardinal and Legate in Lombardy.

The Emperor's own German troops, unpaid and unfed, broke away from the camp to live at free quarters wherever they could. The only allies who joined the Court at Pisa were Michael di Cesena, the contumacious General of the Franciscans, and his numerous followers. Pope John had attempted to propitiate this party by the wise measure of canonising Coelestine V.; but the breach was irreparable between fanatics who held absolute poverty to be the perfection of Christianity, and a Pope whose coffers were already bursting with that mass of gold which on his death astonished the world.

The Emperor, summoned by the threatening state of affairs in Lombardy, broke up his Court at Pisa, and marched his army to Pavia, there to ^{Defection of Italy.} linger for some inglorious months. No sooner was he gone than Ghibelline Pisa rose in tumult, and expelled the pseudo-Pontiff with his officers from their city. They afterwards made a merit with Pope John that they would have seized and delivered him up, but from their fear of the Imperial garrison. A short time elapsed: they had courage to compel the garrison to abandon the city. They sent ambassadors to make their peace with the Pope. Most of the Lombard cities had either set or followed the example of defection. Rumours spread abroad of the death of Frederick of Austria, the friendly rival of the Bavarian for the Empire. Some more formidable claimant might obtain suffrages among those who still persisted in asserting the Empire to be vacant. Louis retired to Trent,

* See in Raynaldus the form of absolution, 1328, c. lv. and lvi.

and for ever abandoned his short-lived kingdom of Italy.*

Death seemed to conspire with Fortune to remove the enemies of the Pope.^a Sciarra Colonna died; Silvester Gatta, the Ghibelline tyrant of Viterbo, died; at length Can della Scala was cut off in his power and magnificence. A more wretched and humiliating fate awaited the Antipope. On the revolt of Pisa from the Imperial interests he had fled to a castle of Count Boniface, Doneratico, about thirty-five miles distant. The castle being threatened by the Florentines, he stole back, and lay hid in the Pisan palace of the same nobleman. Pope John addressed a letter to "his dear brother," the Count, urging him to surrender the child of hell, the pupil of malediction. Peter himself wrote supplicatory letters, throwing himself on the mercy of the Pope. The Count, with honour and courage, stipulated for the life and even for the absolution of the proscribed outlaw. The Archbishop of Pisa was commissioned to receive the recantation, the admission of all his atrocious crimes, and to remove the spiritual censures. In the Cathedral of Pisa,

Aug. 4.

where he had sat in state as the successor of St. Peter, the Antipope now abjured his usurped Popedom, and condemned all his own heretical and impious acts. He was then placed on board a galley, and conveyed to Avignon. In every city in Provence through which he passed he was condemned to hear the public recital of all his iniquities. The day after his

Aug. 24.

arrival at Avignon he was introduced into the full Consistory with a halter round his neck: he threw

* He seems to have reached Trent by Dec. 24 (1329), before the actual death of Frederick of Austria.—Boehm-

mer, Regesta.

^a Raynaldus, 1329, xix. Villani, x. 139.

himself at the Pope's feet, imploring mercy, and ex-
 erating his own impiety. Nothing more was done on
 that day, for the clamour and the multitude, before
 which the awe-struck man stood mute. A fortnight
 after, to give time for a full and elaborate
 statement of all his offences, he appeared Sept. 8.
 again, and read his long self-abasing confession. No
 words were spared which could aggravate his guilt or
 deepen his humiliation. He forswore and condemned
 all the acts of the heretical and schismatic Louis of
 Bavaria, the heresies and errors of Michael di Cesena,
 the blasphemies of Marsilio of Padua and John of
 Jaudun. Pope John wept, and embraced as a father
 his prodigal son. Peter di Corvara was kept in honour-
 able imprisonment in the Papal palace, closely watched
 and secluded from intercourse with the world, but
 allowed the use of books and all the services of the
 Church. He lived about three years and a half, and
 died a short time before his triumphant rival.^b

Louis of Bavaria, now in undisturbed possession of
 the Empire by the death of Frederick of Austria (the
 Pope had in vain sought a new antagonist among
 the German princes), weary of the strife, dispirited by
 his Italian discomfiture, still under excommunication,
 though the excommunication was altogether disregarded
 by the ecclesiastics as well as by the lay nobles of Ger-
 many, was prepared to obtain at any sacrifice
 the recognition of his title. Baldwin, Arch- Reconciliation
proposed.
 bishop of Treves, and the King of Bohemia, undertook
 the office of mediation. They proposed terms so humi-
 liating as might have satisfied any one but a Pope like
 John XXII. Louis would renounce the Antipope, re-

^b Read the Confession of the Antipope, vol. ii.—Apud Baluzium, p. 148

voke his appeal to a General Council, rescind all acts hostile to the Church, acknowledge the justice of his excommunication. The one concession was that he should remain Emperor. The Pope replied at length, and with contemptuous severity.* The books of Marsilio of Padua and John of Jaudun had made too deep a wound: it was still rankling in his heart. Nor these alone—Michael di Cesena, Bonagratia, William of Ockham, had fled to Germany: they had been received with respect. The Pope examines and scornfully rejects all the propositions:—"The Bavarian will renounce the Antipope after the Antipope has deposed himself, and sought the mercy of the Pope. He will revoke his appeal, but what right of appeal has an excommunicated heretic? He will rescind his acts, but what atonement will he make for those acts? He will acknowledge the justice of his excommunication, but what satisfaction does he offer?—what proof of penitence? By what title would he be Emperor?—his old one, which has been so often annulled by the Pope?—

July 31,
1390. by some new title?—he, an impious, sacrilegious, heretical tyrant?" The King of Bohemia is then exhorted to take immediate steps for the election of a lawful Emperor.

But Louis of Bavaria continued to bear the title and to exercise at least some of the functions of Emperor. Once indeed he proposed to abdicate in favour of his son, but the negotiation came to no end. The restless ambition of John of Bohemia was engaged in an adventurous expedition into Italy, where to the Guelfs he declared that his arms were sanctioned by the Pope—to the Ghibellines, that he came to re-establish the rights of the Empire.

* Martene, *Thesaurus*, ii. 810.

The Pope was more vigorous, if not more successful, in the suppression of the spiritual rebels against his power. The more turbulent and obstinate of the Franciscan Order were spread throughout Christendom, from England to Sicily. The Queen of Sicily was suspected of favouring their tenets. Wherever they were, John pursued them with his persecuting edicts. The Inquisition was instructed to search them out in their remotest sanctuaries; the clergy were directed to denounce them on every Sunday and on every festival.

On a sudden it was bruited abroad that the Pope himself had fallen into heresy on a totally different point. John XXII. was proud of his ^{Heresy of the Pope.} theological learning; he had indulged, and in public, in perilous speculations; he had advanced the tenet, that till the day of Judgement the Saints did not enjoy the beatific vision of God. At his own Court some of the Cardinals opposed him with polemic vehemence. The more absolutely the question was beyond the boundary of human knowledge and revealed truth, the more positive and obstinate were the disputants. The enemies of the Pope—those who already held him to be a heretic on account of his rejection of absolute poverty—raised and propagated the cry with zealous activity. It was either his assertion, or an inference from his doctrines, that the Apostles, that John and Peter, even the Blessed Virgin herself, only contemplated the humanity of Christ, and beheld not his Godhead.^a

About the same time jealousies had begun to grow up between the Pope and the Court of France. A new race, that of Valois, was now on the throne. The Pope, while from his residence at Avignon he might appear the

^a Villam. That, no doubt, was the popular view of the doctrine,

vassal, in fact had become the master of his Sovereign. He ruled by a kind of ostentatious parental authority, by sympathy with all their superstitions, and by fostering their ambition, as soaring to the Imperial crown. Philip of Valois aspired to the character of a chivalrous monarch. He declared his determination to organise a vast crusade, first against the Moors in Spain: his aims extended to the conquest of Syria. But the days were past when men were content with the barren glory of combating for the Cross, when the high religious impulse was the inspiration of valour, the love of Christ with the hope of heaven the sole motive and the sole reward. Philip was no St. Louis. There was more worldly wisdom, more worldly interest, in his plan. He submitted certain propositions to the Pope as the terms on which he would condescend to engage in holy warfare for the Cross:—The absolute disposal of all the vast wealth in the Papal treasury, laid up, as always had been said, for this sacred purpose; the tenths of all Christendom for ten years; the appointment to all the benefices in his realm for three years; the re-erection of the kingdom of Arles in favour of his son; the kingdom of Italy for his brother, Charles Count of Alençon.[†] The Pope and the Cardinals stood aghast at these demands. The avaricious Pope to surrender all his treasures!—A new kingdom to be formed which might incorporate Avignon within its limits! They returned a cold answer, with vague promises of spiritual and temporal aid when the King of France should embark on the crusade.

This menaced invasion of his treasury, and the design of creating a formidable kingdom at his gates, caused

[†] Raynaldus, sub ann. 1382.

grave apprehensions to the Pope. He had no inclination to sink, like his predecessor, into a tame vassal of the King of France. He began, if not seriously to meditate, to threaten and to prepare, a retreat into Italy, not indeed to Rome. Rome's humble submission had not effaced the crimes of the coronation of the Bavarian, and the inauguration of the Antipope; and Rome was insecure from the raging feuds of the Orsinis and the Colonnas. The Cardinal Legate, Poyet, the reputed son or nephew of the Pope, after a succession of military adventures and political intrigues, was now master of Bologna. He was Count of Romagna, Marquis of the March of Ancona. He announced the gracious intention of the Pope to honour that city with his residence. He began to clear a vast space, to raze many houses of the citizens, in order to build a palace for the Pope's reception; but this palace had more the look of a strong citadel, to awe and keep in submission the turbulent Bolognese.

Meanwhile the King of France seemed still intent on the crusade. He had rapidly come down in his demands. He would be content with the grant of the tenths throughout his realm for six years. But the rest of Christendom was not to escape this sacred tax: the tenths were to be levied for the Pope during the same period. The King solemnly pledged himself to embark in three years for Syria; but he stipulated that if prevented by any impediment, the validity of his excuse was to be judged not by the Pope, but by two Prelates of France designated for that office.

Yet even the stir of preparation for the crusade, somewhat abated by menacing signs of war between France and England, was absorbed not only among the clergy, but among the laity also, by the dis-

Cardinal
Legate at
Bologna.

The Beatific
Vision.

cussions concerning the Beatific Vision, which rose again into engrossing importance. The tenet had become a passion with the Pope. He had given instructions to the Cardinals, Bishops, and all learned theologians, to examine it with the most reverent attention; but benefices and preferments were showered on those who inclined to his own opinions—the rest were rewarded with coldness and neglect. The Pope himself collected a chain of citations from the Scriptures and the Fathers, in which, without absolutely determining the question, he betrayed his own views with sufficient distinctness. Paris became the centre of these disputes. The Pope was eager to obtain the support of the University, in theology, as in all other branches of erudition, of the highest authority. The General of the Franciscans, Gerald Otho, a fellow-countryman of the Pope, and advanced by his favour to that high rank on the degradation of Michael di Cesena, was zealous to display his gratitude. He preached in public, denying the Beatific Vision till the day of Judgement. The University and the Dominicans, actuated by their hostility to the Franciscans, declared the authority of their own irrefragable Thomas Aquinas impeached. They broke out in indignant repudiation of such heretical conclusions. The King rushed into the contest: he declared that his realm should not be polluted with heresy; he threatened to burn the Franciscan as a Paterin; he uttered even a more opprobrious name; he declared that not even the Pope should disseminate such odious doctrines in France. "If the Saints behold not the Godhead, of what value was their intercession? Why address to them useless prayers?" The preacher fled in all haste; with equal haste came the watchful Michael di Cesena to Paris, to inflame and keep alive the ultra-Papal orthodoxy of King Philip.

The King of France and the King of Naples were estranged too by the doubtful conduct of the Pope towards the King of Bohemia. The double-minded Pontiff was protesting to the Florentines that he had given no sanction to, and disclaimed aloud all connexion with, the invasion of Italy by the Bohemian; but, as was well known, John of Bohemia was too useful an ally against Louis of Bavaria for the Pope to break with him; and the Cardinal Legate, Bernard de Poyet, was in close alliance with the Bohemian.^f

The Kings spoke the language of strong remonstrance; the greater part of the Cardinals admitted, with sorrow, the heterodoxy of the Pope. His adversaries, all over Christendom, denounced his grievous departure from holy truth. Bonagratia, the Franciscan, wrote to confute his awful errors. Even John XXII. began to quail: he took refuge in the cautious ^{The Pope} ambiguity with which he had promulgated his ^{alarmed} opinions. He sought only truth; he had not positively determined or defined this profound question.

But the time was now approaching, when, if a Pontiff so worldly and avaricious might be admitted among the Saints, he would know the solution of that unrevealed secret. John XXII. was now near ninety years old: the last year of his life was not the least busy and unquiet. The Greeks, through succours ^{A.D. 1334.} from the Pope and the King of Naples, had obtained some naval advantages over the Turks; but the Cardinal Legate, expelled from Bologna, either fled for refuge or was unwilling to be absent, if not from the deathbed of

^f Compare the curious autobiographical account of this expedition by Charles, the son of John of Bohemia, afterwards the Emperor Charles IV.—Boehmer, Pontes, i. pp. 228, 270.

his parent, from the conclave which should elect his successor. Against Louis of Bavaria, though, in the hope of his surrender of the Empire to his brother, Pope John had taken a milder tone, he now resumed all his immitigable rigour: on the condition of the unqualified surrender of the Empire, and that alone, could Louis be admitted into the bosom of the Church. The Pope had continued to urge the suppression of the Fraticelli by the stake. But his theological hardihood forsook him.* He published on his deathbed what his enemies called a lukewarm recantation,^b but a recantation which might have satisfied less jealous polemics. He had no intention to infringe on the decrees of the Church. All he had preached or disputed he humbly submitted to the judgment of the Church and of his successors.^c

But if the doctrinal orthodoxy of John XXII. was thus rescued from obloquy, the discovery of the enormous treasures accumulated during his Pontificate must have shaken the faith even of those who repudiated the extreme views of Apostolic poverty. The brother of Villani the historian, a banker, was ordered to take the inventory. It amounted to eighteen millions of gold florins in specie, seven millions in plate and jewels. "The good man," observes the historian, "had forgotten that saying, 'Lay not up your treasures upon earth;' but perhaps I have said more than enough—perhaps he intended this wealth for the recovery of the Holy Land."^k This was beyond and above the lavish ex-

* Raynald. sub ann.

^b "Trepidam recantationem."—*Minortia apud Eccard.*

^c Villani. This was dated Dec. 3. He died Dec. 4.

^k "He loved our city," says Villani, "when we were obedient to the Legate; when not so, he was our enemy."

penditure on the Italian wars, the maintenance of his martial son or nephew, the Cardinal Legate, at the head of a great army, and his profuse provision for other relatives.^m One large source of his wealth was notorious to Christendom. Under the pretext of discouraging simony, he seized into his own power all the collegiate benefices throughout Christendom. Besides this, by the system of Papal reserves, he never confirmed the direct promotion of any Prelate; but by his skilful promotion of each Bishop to a richer bishopric or archbishopric, and so on to a patriarchate, as on each vacancy the annates or first fruits were paid, six or more fines would accrue to the treasury. Yet this Pope—though besides his rapacity, he was harsh, relentless, a cruel persecutor, and betrayed his joy not only at the discomfiture, but at the slaughter of his enemiesⁿ—

^m A large portion of this revenue rose from the system of reservations, carried to its height by John XXII. He began this early. "*Joannes XXII., Pontificatus sui anno primo reservavit suæ et Sedis Apostolicæ collationi, omnia beneficia ecclesiastica, quæ fuerunt et quocunque nomina censeantur, ubicunque ea vacare contigerit per acceptionem alterius beneficii, prætextu gratiæ ab eodem D. Papâ factæ vel faciendæ acceptata, minique Gualcelmo Vicecancellario suo præcepit . . . quod hæc redigam in scripturam.*"—Baluz Vit. P. Avin. i. p. 722. These vacancies were extended to other cases. He amplified in the same manner the Papal provisions. "That all these graces would be sold, and that this was the object of their enactment, was as little a secret as the wealth they

brought into the Papal treasury."—Eichhorn, *Deutsche Recht*, i. li. p. 507. This is truly said. John, by a Bull under the specious pretext of annulling the execrable usage of pluralities (the Bull is entitled "*Execrabilis*"), commanded all pluralists to choose one, and one only, of their benefices (the Cardinals were excepted), and to surrender the rest, to which the Pope was to appoint, as reserves. "*Quoniam omnia et singula beneficia vacatura, ut præmittitur, vel dimissa, nobis et Sedis Apostolicæ dispositioni reservamus, inhibentes ne quis præter Romanum Pontificem . . . de hujusmodi beneficiis disponere præsumat.*"

ⁿ "*Rallegravasi oltre a modo d' uccisione a morte de' nemici.*"—Viliani, xi. 20.

had great fame for piety as well as learning, arose every night to pray and to study, and every morning attended Mass.*

* Boehmer, who warps everything to the advantage of the Pope, ends with this sentence: "Er war neunzig jahre alt, und hinterliess einen Schatz | von fünf und zwanzig Millionen gold gulden." Well might he repudiate the absolute poverty of Christ!

CHAPTER VIII

Benedict XII.

JOHN XXII. had contrived to crowd the Conclave with French Prelates. Twenty-four Cardinals met; the general suffrage was in favour of the brother of the Count of Comminges, Bishop of Porto, but the Cardinals insisted on a solemn promise that De Comminges would continue to rule in Avignon. "I had sooner," he said, "yield up the Cardinalate than accept the Popedom on such conditions." All fell off from the intractable Prelate. In the play of votes, now become usual in the Conclave, all happened at once to throw away their suffrages on one for whom no single vote would have been deliberately given.* To his own surprise, Dec. 20,
1334. and to that of the College of Cardinals and of Christendom, the White Abbot, the Cistercian, James Fournier, found himself Pope. "You have chosen an ass," he said in humility or in irony. He took the name of Benedict XII.

Benedict XII. did himself injustice: he was a man of shrewdness and sagacity; he had been a great Pope if his courage had been equal to Benedict XII. his prudence. His whole Pontificate was a tacit reproach on the turbulence, implacability, and avarice of his predecessor. His first act was to disperse the

* "Et ecce in electione . . . tot cardinalibus quasi insciis, sub altercatione electus extitit." "Ego M. nomino illum, qui si esse non poterit, nomino Blancum, quod repertum est a duobus partibus nominatum."—*Libert. Argent.* p. 125.

throng of greedy expectants around the Court at Avignon. He sent them back, each to his proper function. He declared against the practice of heaping benefices—held, according to the phrase, in commendam—on the favoured few: he retained that privilege for Cardinals alone. He discouraged the Papal reserves; would not create vacancies by a long ascending line of promotions. The clergy did not forgive him his speech, “that he had great difficulty in finding men worthy of advancement.” He even opened the coffers of his predecessor: he bestowed 100,000 florins on the Cardinals. He sought for theological peace. He with-

July 8,
1335.

drew to the picturesque sources of the Sorga, not yet famed in Petrarch's exquisite poetry, to meditate and examine the arguments (he was a man of learning) on the Beatific Vision. He published a full

Jan. 30,
1335.

and orthodox determination of the question, that the saints who do not pass through Purgatory immediately behold the Godhead. The heresy of John XXII. was thus at the least implied. He had some thought (he wanted courage to carry out his own better designs) of restoring the See of St. Peter to Italy; but Bologna would not yield up her turbulent independence, and was averse to his reception. Rome was still in a state of strife; and perhaps Robert of Naples did not wish to be overshadowed by the neighbourhood of the Pope.^b Benedict even made the first advance to reconciliation with Louis of Bavaria.

But Benedict XII. was under the hard yoke of the King of France. He soon abandoned all design of emancipation from that control. The magnificent palace

^b Letter written from the bridge over the Sorga to King Philip, July 31, 1335.—Raynald, sub ann.

which, out of the treasures of Pope John, he began to build, looked like a deliberate determination to fix the Holy See for ever on the shores of the Rhône. Avignon was to become the centre and capital of Christendom. The Cardinals began to erect and adorn their splendid and luxuriant villas beyond the Rhône. The amicable overtures to Louis of Bavaria were repressed by some irresistible constraint. The Emperor, weak, weary, worn out with strife, would have accepted the most abasing terms. His own excommunication, the interdict on the Empire, weighed him down. He was not without superstitious awe; his days were drawing on; he might die unabsolved.* Where the interdict was not observed (in most cities of Germany), there was still some want of solemnity, something of embarrassment in the services of the Church; in a few cities, where the zealous monks or clergy endeavoured to maintain it, were heartburnings, strife, persecution. He would have submitted to swear fealty to the Pope in as ample terms as any former Emperor, and to annul all his acts against Pope John, all acts done as Emperor;† he would revoke all proceedings and judgements of Henry of Luxemburg against Robert of Naples, all the grants and gifts which he had made at Rome; he would agree to accept no oath of fealty, recognition, or any advocacy, or grant any fief in Rome or in the territories of the Church. If he broke this treaty, the Pope had power to depose him from all his dignities, or to inflict heavier penalties, without citation or solemnity of law.‡ He would submit

* Schmidt, Geschichte, b. vii. l. 7, p. 324.

† "Quæcunque alia titulo imperii dicta vel facta per nos existunt . . . ita ea omnia irrita et nulla pronunciamus." —Apud Raynaldum, 1336, c. xviii.

‡ "Liberum sit Romano Pontifici ad alias pœnas procedere contra nos, privando etiam nos, si tibi videbitur, imperiali, regiâ et quâlibet aliâ dignitate, absque aliâ vocatione vel juris solemnitate."—Ibid.

to a second coronation in Rome, on a day appointed by the Pope, and quit the city the day after. The Pope was to be the absolute judge of the fulfilment of the treaty.

No sooner had the rumour of these negotiations spread abroad, than Benedict XII. was besieged with rude and vehement remonstrances. Ambassadors arrived at Avignon from the Kings of France and of Naples. The Kings of Bohemia and Hungary were known to support their protest. "Would the Pope," they publicly demanded, "maintain a notorious heretic? Let him take heed, lest he himself be implicated in the heresy." Benedict replied, "Would they destroy the Empire?" "Our sovereigns speak not against the Empire, but against a Prince who has done so much wrong to the Church." "Have we not done more wrong? If my predecessor had so willed, Louis would have come with a staff instead of a sceptre, and cast himself at their feet. He has acted under great provocation." "We could not," he subjoined, "have exacted harder terms, if Louis of Bavaria had been a prisoner in one of our dungeon towers." But Benedict could speak, he could not act, truth and justice: his words are a bitter satire on his own weakness. The King of France took summary measures of compulsion: he seized all the estates of the Cardinals, most of them French Prelates, within his realm. The Cardinals besieged the Court; the King of France himself visited Avignon. He made a pompous journey, partly to survey the cities of his kingdom, partly from devotion for the recovery of his son, Prince John. He was accompanied by the Kings of Bohemia and Navarre:

The King of
France at
Avignon.

he was met by the King of Arragon. He took up his abode in the Villeneuve beyond the Rhone, in his own territory, where the Cardinals had their sumptuous palaces. The Pope, on Good Friday, preached so moving a sermon (disastrous news had arrived from the East) that the King renewed his vows of embarking on the crusade. The other Kings, numberless Dukes, Counts, and Knights, with four Cardinals, were seized with the same contagious impulse. Orders were actually sent to prepare the fleets in all the ports of the south of France; letters were written to the Kings of Hungary, Naples, Cyprus, and to the Venetians, to announce the determination.^a At Avignon the King of France charged Louis of Bavaria with entering into a league with the enemies of France: as though he himself had not occupied cities of the Empire under pretence of protecting them from the pollution of heresy, or as though a league with the enemies of France was an act of hostility to the Pope. And who were these enemies? The war with England had not begun. The obsequious Pope coldly dismissed the Imperial ambassadors.^b

But even success against his enemies raised not Louis of Bavaria from his stupor of religious terror. He had wreaked his vengeance on his most dangerous foe, the King of Bohemia; wrested from him Carinthia and the Tyrol by force of arms, and awarded them to the Austrian Princes. "You tell me," said the Pope, "that he is abandoned by all; but who has yet been able to deprive him of his crown?"^c Still Louis, though repulsed, looked eagerly to Avignon; but so completely

^a Froissart, i. 50.

^b Letter of the Pope to Louis of Bavaria.—Apud Raynald.

^c Albert. Argentin. f. 128, apud Urstisium.

did Philip rule the Cardinals, the Cardinals the Pope, that he took the desperate measure of proposing an alliance with the King of France. Philip could not but in courtesy consult the Pope; the Pope could only sanction an alliance with a Prince under excommunication when he had sought and obtained absolution. Perhaps he thought this the best course to gain permission to absolve Louis; perhaps he was alarmed at the confederacy. But Philip would condescend to this alliance only on his own terms. The Emperor was to pledge himself to enter into treaty with no enemy of France (no doubt he had England in view). The negotiations dragged slowly on: the ambassadors of Louis at Avignon grew weary and left the city. Already the

April, 1387.

Pope had warned the King of France, that if he still persisted in his haughty delay, still exacted intolerable conditions, Louis would throw himself into the arms of England. The Pope was profoundly anxious to avert the damnation which hung over the partisans of Louis in Germany and Italy.^k

War was now imminent, inevitable, between France and England. The Pope had interposed his mediation, but in vain.^m Edward III. treated with outward respect, but with no more, the Pope's solemn warning not to be guilty of an alliance with Louis of Bavaria, the contumacious rebel, and the excommunicated outcast of the Church.ⁿ The English clergy were with the King. The

^k Letter from the Pope to Philip.—Raynald, 1387, c. ii.

^m There are several letters MS., B. M., on this subject.

ⁿ MS., B. M. A letter dated July 20, 1387, denounces the crimes of Louis of Bavaria, his offences against

John XXII., his consorting with notorious heretics in Italy, his elevation of Peter of Corvara to the Antipope-dom. Benedict, who had treated him with mildness in hope of his penitence, entered into negotiations with him. King Edward is urged to withdraw

Archbishop of Canterbury, the Bishops of London and Winchester, disregarded the Pope's letters, and opposed his Legates. The Emperor rose in importance. The Pope reproached him afterwards with breaking off the negotiations at Avignon, withdrawing his ambassadors, and not appearing at the appointed day, Michaelmas.* Yet all his conduct showed, that if he had hoped for absolution, Louis of Bavaria would have bought it at any price of degradation. He might seem ready to drink the last dregs of humiliation. He had made, before this, another long appeal to the Pope; he had excused himself, by all kinds of pitiful equivocations, for all his damnable acts in the usurpation of the Empire, and the creation of the Antipope; he forswore all his bold partisans, Marsilio of Padua, John of Jaudun; declared himself ignorant of the real meaning of their writings; threw off Michael of Cesena and the Spiritual Franciscans; asserted himself to hold the orthodox doctrine on the poverty of Christ. This had been his sixth embassy to the Court of Avignon. Oct. 28,
1338.

Now, however, Louis took a higher tone: he threatened to march to Avignon, and to extort absolution by force of arms. For not only was his alliance eagerly solicited by England: Germany was roused to indignation. Diet after Diet met, ever more and more resolved Movement in
Germany. to maintain their independent right to elect the Sovereign of the Empire. Henry of Virneburg had been forced by the Pope on the reluctant Chapter and reluctant Emperor as Archbishop of Mentz; but Henry

from all recognition of Louis as Emperor, till he should have made full satisfaction to the Church. See, following letters, his dread of Edward's alliance "cum Theutonicis," Nov. 13, 1338.

The Pope declares the Empire vacant, the full right of so ordaining in the Pope
 * Lit. ad Archiepisc. Colon., apud Raynald. 1338, c. 3.
 † Dehlenschlager, Uikunden, lxxi.

was now in direct opposition to the Pope, under excommunication. He summoned an assembly of the Prelates and clergy at Spiers. With the utmost unanimity they agreed to send letters, by the Bishop of Coire and Count Gerlach of Nassau, to demand the reconciliation of Louis of Bavaria (they did not call him Emperor) with the Church, and so the deliverance of the German churches and clergy from their wretched state of strife and confusion. The Pope openly refused an answer to these ambassadors; but yet it was believed in Germany that he had whispered into their ears, not without tears, that he would willingly grant the absolution; but that if he did, the King of

July 1.
1338.

France had threatened to treat him with worse indignity than Philip the Fair had treated Boniface VIII.^a To the excommunicated Archbishop of Mentz he deigned no reply; but to the Archbishop of Cologne he spoke in milder language, but threw the whole blame of the rupture on the Bavarian. Four other Diets were held of Prelates, Princes, Nobles, at Cologne, Frankfort, Rhense near Coblentz, again at Frankfort.

Diets.
April 10,
May 16,
July 16,
Aug. 8.

At Frankfort the Emperor appeared, and almost in tears complained of the obduracy of the Pope, and charged the King of France with preventing the reconciliation in order to debase and degrade the Imperial crown. He repeated the Lord's Prayer, the Ave-Maria, and the Apostles' creed, to prove his orthodoxy. The assembly declared that he had done enough as satisfaction to the Pope: they pronounced all the Papal proceedings, even the excommunication, null and void. If the clergy would not celebrate the divine services,

^a Albertus Argentin.

they must be compelled to do so. The meeting at Rhense was more imposing. Six of the Electors, all but the King of Bohemia, were present.* It is called the first meeting of the Electoral College. July 18. They solemnly agreed that the holy Roman Empire and they, the Prince-Electors, had been assailed, limited, and aggrieved in their honours, rights, customs, and liberties; that they would maintain, guard, assert those rights against all and every one without exception; that no one would obtain dispensation, absolution, relaxation, abolition of his vow; that he should be, and was declared to be, faithless and traitorous before God and man who should not maintain all this against any opponent whatsoever. The States-General at Frankfort passed, as a fundamental law of the Empire, a declaration that the Imperial dignity and power are from God alone; that an Emperor elected by the concordant suffrage or a majority of the electoral suffrages has plenary Imperial power, and does not need the approbation, confirmation, or authority of the Pope, or the Apostolic See, or any other."

This declaration was the signal for an active controversy: for daring acts of defiance on the Papal side, of persecution by the Imperial party. The Pope's ban of excommunication was nailed upon the gate of the Cathedral at Frankfort. At Frankfort all the Canons and Dominicans, in many cities on the Rhine the Dominicans and all known partisans of the Pope, all those who refused to celebrate the service, were expelled from their convents.

* *Chronicon Vinteduran.* apud *Ec-card*, i. p. 1844. *Chronicon Petren.* apud *Menckenium*, iii. 337. *Raynald.* 1398, c. viii.

* "Nec Papæ sive Sedis Aposto-

licæ aut alicujus alterius approbatione, confirmatione, auctoritate indiget vel consensu."—*Oehlenschläger*, Na. lxviii. *Rebberd*, *Annal.* apud *Frahes* i. 618.

Meeting with
King Edward
of England.
Sept. 3.

At a Diet at Coblentz the Emperor and the King of England met. Two thrones were raised in the market-place, on which the monarchs took their seats. The Emperor held the sceptre in his right hand, the globe in his left: a knight stood with a drawn sword over his head. Above 17,000 men-at-arms surrounded the assembly. The King of England recognised the Emperor excommunicated by the Pope. Before the Chief Sovereign of Christendom, Edward arraigned Philip of France as unjustly withholding from him not only Normandy, Anjou, and Aquitaine, but the throne of France, his maternal inheritance. The Emperor then rose. He accused Philip of refusing homage for the fiefs held of the Empire. He declared Philip to have forfeited those fiefs, to be out of the protection of the Empire, till he should have restored the kingdom of France to its rightful owner, the King of England. He declared the King of England Imperial Vicar over all the provinces west of the Rhine, and from Cologne to the sea. All the Princes of the Low Countries became thus his allies or vassals. The Emperor and the King of England sent their common defiance to the King of France. Pope Benedict, it was said, rejoiced at that defiance.*

Yet all this ostentation of defiance and scorn, this display of German independence, the determination of the electors to maintain their own rights, this confederacy of prelates and nobles and the States-General to repel the pretensions of the Pope, as to any controul over the election of the Emperor, the popular excitement against the papalising clergy and monks, the

* "De quâ diffidatione," says Albert Argentin (he was a dependent on the Bishop of Strasburg), "Papa Benedictus, et intellectâ, multum jocundabatur."—P. 128.

elaborate arguments of the advocates of the Imperial power, the alliance with England—could not repress the versatility of Louis of Bavaria, nor allay his terror of the Papal censures. On the first excuse he began to withdraw his feeble support from the King of England, to revoke his title of Imperial Vicar.* He listened to the first advances of Philip, who lured him with hope of reconciliation to the Roman See. Two years had not passed when Pope Benedict beheld at his Court at Avignon three Imperial ambassadors (not the first since the treaty with England), the Duke of Saxony, the Count of Holland, and the Count Hohenberg, renowned for his legal knowledge. They were accompanied or met by an ambassador from the King of France, supplicating the Pope to grant absolution to the orthodox, pious, and upright Louis of Bavaria. His letters were somewhat colder and less urgent. They pressed the abrogation of censures, which endangered such countless souls, as far as might be consistent with the honour of the Church. Even a Pope in Avignon could not submit to this insolent dictation, and from a King of France, embarrassed, as Philip now was, by such formidable enemies. Benedict replied with dignity, mingled with his characteristic shrewdness and sarcasm, "that he could not, according to the good pleasure of

* MS., B. M. The Pope, who had made new proposals of peace between France and England, urges Edward to give up the Vicariate accepted from the excommunicated Louis of Bavaria, Oct. 12, 1340. Benedict's exertions for peace between France and England were constant, earnest, solemn. There is a letter on Edward's assumption of any pretensions to the throne of

France; the crown does not descend in the female line; if it did, there are nearer heirs than Edward; let him not trust to Germans and Flemings, March 3, 1340. See Edward's elaborate answer. Edward is admonished not to be too proud of his victories, Oct. 27, 1340. The King of France had agreed to accept the Pope's mediation as "*persona privata*."

the King of France, hold Louis of Bavaria one day for a heretic, the next for an orthodox believer: Louis must make his submission, and undergo canonical penance." The world saw through both; it was thought that the King of France pretended to wish that which he did not wish; the Pope not to wish that which in fact was his real wish.*

Benedict XII. did not live to fulfil his peaceful designs. He died, leaving his reputation to be disputed with singular pertinacity by friends and foes. He was a man wiser in speech than in action, betraying by his keen words that he saw what was just and right, but dared not follow it.† Yet political courage alone was wanting. He was resolutely superior to the papal vice of nepotism. On one only of his family, and that a deserving man, he bestowed a rich benefice. To the rest he said: "As James Fournier I knew you well, as Pope I know you not. I will not put myself in the power of the King of France by encumbering myself with a host of needy relatives." He had the moral fortitude to incur unpopularity with the clergy by persisting in his slow, cautious, and regular distribution of benefices; with the monks by rigid reforms. He hated the monks, and even the Mendicant Orders. He showed his hatred, as they said, by the few promotions which he bestowed upon them; and hatred so shown was sure to meet with hatred in return. His weaknesses or vices were not likely to find much charity. He was said to be fond of wine, to like gay and free conversation. A bitter epitaph describes him as a Nero, as death to the

* Albert. Argentin. p. 129. Vin-
toduran, p. 1883. Benedict Vit. viii.
apud Baluzium.

† See the very curious account of a personal interview which Albert of Stras-
burg had with the Pope, which shows
at once his leaning towards the Emperor
and his jesting disposition.—P. 129.

laity, a viper to the clergy, without truth, a mere cup of wine.* Yet of this Nero there is not one recorded act of cruelty (compare him with John XXII.) ; he was guiltless of human blood shed in war. He may have shown a viper's tooth to the clergy ; he was too apt to utter biting and unwelcome truths. The justice of the other charges may be fairly estimated by the injustice of these. The last was most easy of exaggeration ; another tradition ascribes to the habits of Benedict the coarse proverb, "as drunk as a Pope." Another more disgraceful accusation has been preserved or invented on account of the fame of one whose honour was involved in it. He is said to have seduced and kept as a concubine a sister of Petrarch. But this rests on the unsupported authority of a late biographer of the Poet.†

* *Ille fuit Nero, laticis mors, vipera clero,
Devius a vero, cuppa repleta mero."*

† It is absolutely without contemporary authority or allusion, even in the later biographies in Baluzius, which, perhaps written by some of the unpreferred clergy or monks, care-

fully record all the other charges. It first appeared in Squarzacico's "Life of Petrarch." If De Sade is right in supposing Petrarch's letter to refer to Benedict XII., he speaks of him as "*madidus mero*," but there is not a word about licentious manners.—De Sade.

CHAPTER IX.

Clement VI.

THE French Cardinals were all-powerful in the Conclave.

Clement VI.
May 7, 1342. The successor of Benedict XII. was Cardinal Peter Roger, of a noble house of Murmont in the Limousin. He had been prior of St. Bandille at Nismes, Abbot of Fécamp, Bishop of Arras, Archbishop of Sens, Archbishop of Rouen. A Frenchman by birth, inclination, character, at his inauguration all was French. For the Emperor, for the Senator of Rome, for the

Orsinis, Colonnas, Annibaldis, his stirrup was held by the Duke of Normandy, son and heir of the King of France, with the Dukes of Bourbon and Burgundy, and the Dauphin of Vienne. He took the name of Clement VI.; it might almost seem an announcement of the policy which was to distinguish his popedom. If Benedict XII. stood in every respect in strong contrast to John XXII., the rule of Clement's administration might seem to be the studious reversal of that of his predecessor. All the benefices, which the tardy and

His first
acts.

hesitating conscientiousness of Benedict had left vacant, were filled at once by the lavish and hasty grants of Clement. He declared a great number of bishoprics and abbacies vacant as Papal reserves, or as filled by void elections; he granted them away with like prodigality. It was objected that no former Pope had assumed this power. "They knew not," he answered,

"how to act as Pope."^a He issued a Brief that all poor clergy who would present themselves at Avignon within two months should partake of his bounty. An eye-witness declared that 100,000 greedy applicants crowded the streets of Avignon.^b If Clement acted up to his maxim, that no one ought to depart unsatisfied from the palace of a prince, how vast and inexhaustible must have been the wealth and preferment at the disposal of the Pope! The reforms of the monastic orders were mitigated or allowed to fall into disuse. The clemency of the Pope had something of that dramatic show which characterises and delights his countrymen. A man of low rank had in former days done him some injury. The man, in hopes that he and his offence had been forgotten, presented a petition to the Pope. Clement remembered both too well. Twice he threw down the petition and trampled it under foot. He was then heard by his attendants to murmur, "Devil, tempt me not to revenge!" He took up and set his seal to the petition.^c

If Clement was indulgent to others, he was not less so to himself. The Court of Avignon became the most splendid, perhaps the gayest, in Christendom. The Provençals might almost think their brilliant and chivalrous Counts restored to power and enjoyment. The papal palace spread out in extent and magnificence. The young art of painting was fostered by the encouragement of Italian artists.^d The Pope was more than royal in the number and attire of his retainers. The papal stud of horses commanded general admiration. The life of Clement was a constant succession of eccle-

^a Vit. iii. et v. Clement VI. apud Baluzium, pp. 284, 321.

^b Vit. i. p. 284.

^c Vit. i. p. 204.

^d See Kugler. Giotto had painted for Clement V., f. 123.

siastical pomps and gorgeous receptions and luxurious banquets. Ladies were admitted freely to the Court,* the Pope mingled with ease in the gallant intercourse. If John XXII., and even the more rigid Benedict, did not escape the imputation of unclerical licence, Clement VI., who affected no disguise in his social hours, would hardly be supposed superior to the common freedom of the ecclesiastics of his day. The Countess of Turenne, if not, as general report averred, actually so, had at least many of the advantages of the Pope's mistress—the distribution of preferments and benefices to any extent, which this woman, as rapacious as she was handsome and imperious, sold with shameless publicity.†

A voluptuous Court was not likely to raise the moral condition of the surrounding city. Petrarch had lived for some time at Avignon, under the patronage of the Cardinal Colonna, and of James Colonna, Bishop of Lombes. His passion for Laura had begun in a church; and though her severe and rare virtue gave that exquisite unattainted purity to his love verses; though as a poet his tenderness never melts into earthly passion; his highest raptures are Platonism; yet Petrarch was not altogether, though he became Canon of Lombes and Archdeacon of Parma, preserved from the contagion of his age; he had two natural children. But of the moral corruption of Avignon he repeatedly speaks with loathing abhorrence; Rome itself in comparison was the seat of matronly virtue: by his account it was one vast brothel. He fled to the quiet and unvitiated seclusion of Vaucluse.‡

Morals of
Avignon.

* "*Mullerum et honorum et potentie cupidus . . . ipse Franciscus Francos ferventer adhaesit.*"—Albert. Argentin. p. 132.

† Matteo Villani.

‡ This repulsive subject cannot be fully understood without the study of Petrarch's letters, especially the book

Clement VI., with his easy temper, was least likely to restrain that proverbial vice of the Popes, which has formed for itself a proper name—*Nepotism*. On his brothers, nephews, kindred, relatives, compatriots, were accumulated grants, benefices, promotions. One nephew, at the age of eighteen, was Notary of the Apostolic Court and Cardinal.^b

Scarcely had Clement ascended the throne, when the Roman people sent a deputation to his Holiness ^{Embassy from Rome.} to urge him to return to his See. Petrarch, who had been crowned at Rome, had acquired the rights of a Roman citizen, and was one of the eighteen ambassadors. Among the rest lurked undistinguished Nicolo Rienzi, the future Tribune. Petrarch, as the crowned Poet of Rome, addressed the Pope in a long piece of Latin verse. Rome, the aged female, besought the return of the Pope; she tempted him with the enumeration of her countless religious treasures, her wonder-working reliques, her churches, her apostolic shrines.

The Pope, as usual, put off this supplication with fine

"Sine Titulo." Avignon was the sink of Christendom. "Nec tam propter se quam propter concurrentes et coactas ibi concretasque orbis sordes ac nequitas hic locus a principio multis atque ante alios mihi pessimus omnium visus est."—Sen. l. 10, ep. 2. But this wickedness was not only among the low, the retainers of the Church, or the gown. "Tam calidi, tamque precipites in Venerem senes sunt, tanta eis ætatis et status et virium cepit obliuio, sic in libidines inardescunt, sic in omne ruunt dedecus, quasi omnis eorum gloria, non in cruce Christi sit, sed in comensationibus, et ebrietatibus,

et quæ hæc sequuntur in cubilibus, impudentis . . . Spectat hæc Sathan ridens atque in pari tripudio delectatus, atque inter decrepitos ac puellas arbiter sedens, stupet plus illos agere, quam se hortari." I must break off. "Mitto stupra, raptus, incestus, adulteria, qui jam Pontificalis ludi lasciuia sunt."—P. 730, Ed. Bas. Again I must pause; I dare not quote even the Latin. It is not enough to say that Petrarch was an Italian, and eager to restore the Papacy to Rome, or to treat such passages as satiric declamation.

^b Vit. i. p. 265. Matteo Villani apud Muratori, xiv. l. lii. c. 43.

words, but he granted one request. The Jubilee appointed by Pope Boniface for every hundred years was ^{The Jubilee.} but a partial blessing to mankind; very few indeed lived to that period. Clement ordained that it should be celebrated at the end of fifty years.

One man alone was excepted from the all-embracing clemency of the Pope—Louis of Bavaria. ^{Louis of Bavaria.} Already, as Archbishop of Rouen, Clement had preached before the Kings of France and Bohemia a furious and abusive declamation, in which he played on the name of the Bavarian. Louis had not merely joined in the persecution of those ecclesiastics or monks who obeyed the papal interdict; he had done an act of usurpation on the ecclesiastical authority, which, besides its contempt of the Pope, had inflamed against him the implacable resentment of the King of Bohemia. Of his imperial authority he had dissolved the marriage of Margaret of Carinthia, heiress of great part of the Tyrol, and sanctioned her repudiation of her husband, a younger son of the King of Bohemia.¹ He had then given a dispensation for her marriage with his own son, within the prohibited degrees.^k The bold and faithful asserters of the imperial power, Marsilio of Padua and William of Ockham, had been again his counsellors; they declared the power of dissolving marriages, and of dispensations, to be inherent in the imperial crown.

Yet on the accession of Clement. Louis sent a sub-

¹ Albert of Strassburg gives a strange account of this ill-assorted wedlock. "Cumque Joannes Comes Tyrolis, filius Bohemi *impotens*, uxorem suam *semifatuam* plurimum molestaret, inter alia, ejus mordendo mammas." n

^k Albert (p. 119) calls the act of Louis "*inconsuetum et horribile*. O idolorum servitus avaritia, quæ tantos principes confudati, ex quibus iterum inter Bohemos et Principem et filios suos non immerito livor edax et odia suscitantur."

missive embassy to the Pope, to demand absolution. At the same time he reminded Philip of France of his solemn oath to interpose his friendly mediation. The Pope sternly answered that Louis must first acknowledge his sins and heresies, entreat pardon, lay down his imperial power at the Pope's feet, and restore the Tyrol to its rightful lord.

During the same year Clement published a new Bull of excommunication throughout Christendom, ^{April 12,} which, if Louis did not abdicate all his im-^{1343.}perial authority within three months, and appear to receive judgement before the papal tribunal, threatened him with still heavier and worldly penalties. The Archbishops, Henry of Mentz and Baldwin of ^{Oct. 17, 1343.}Treves, were ordered immediately to take steps for the election of a King of the Romans.

Louis was constantly vacillating between the most haughty defiance of the Pope and the meanest ^{Vacillation of Louis.} submission. At one time he alarmed the religious fears of his boldest partisans by his lofty pretensions; at another, disquieted them by his abject humiliation. He now threatened not to recognise Clement as Pope; he gave away bishoprics and benefices to which the Pope had already presented; he seized the money which the Pope's collectors were exacting for a crusade. But no sooner had the Pope's order to the Archbishops to summon the electors to discuss a new election, and the publication of the papal excommunication throughout Germany, produced some effect—no sooner had the electors met at Rhense,—than Louis hastened to entreat their forbearance, to promise his utmost endeavours to obtain reconciliation with the Pope, and to be guided altogether by their counsel.

Not content with this, Louis plunged desperately and

at once into the lowest depths of humiliation. The Pope at the close of the three months had held a consistory. It was proclaimed in Latin and in German, "Does any one appear for Louis of Bavaria?" None replied. He was pronounced in contumacy. At the same time came the answer of the King of France. "He had not sought the favour of the Pope in a becoming manner."^m

And now even the Pope himself was astonished by a proposal from Louis, that he, Clement, should absolutely dictate the form of submission: the ambassadors of Louis would receive full powers to subscribe to whatever conditions the Pope might be pleased to impose. Now was executed a procuration the most disgraceful, the most rigorous, that Louis ought not to have signed had he been in the Pope's prison.ⁿ It might seem to tax the ingenuity of the Pope's pride and enmity to frame more degrading conditions. Louis was to acknowledge and repudiate all his transgressions committed against John XXII. or his legates in the election of an Antipope, the protection of Marsilio of Padua and his fellows, his appeal to the Council; he was to condemn and declare accursed all the errors of Marsilio and his partisans. As penance for these offences, Louis was to undertake a crusade, build churches and monasteries, and do all other acts to the satisfaction of the Pope; he was to entreat pardon and absolution for all his crimes, to lay aside unconditionally the imperial title assumed at Rome; to confess that he had borne it heretically and unlawfully; to surrender his whole power into the hands of the Pope:

Degrading
terms ac-
cepted by
Louis.

^m Albert, Argentin.

ⁿ So writes the author of the *Paralipomena*.—*Chronis. Unspurgans.* p. 271.

as regarded the Kings of France and Bohemia, to conform himself entirely to the Pope's will; humbly to beseech the Pope to restore him to that state in which he was before his condemnation by Pope John; formally to take the amplest oath of allegiance ever taken by his predecessors to the Pope, to confirm all grants, to swear never to assail the papal territory, and be in all things, even the most severely trying, absolutely and entirely obedient to the Pope; to surrender his whole power, state, will, judgement, to the free and unlimited disposition of the Pope.* The imperial ambassadors, the Dauphin of Vienne, the Bishops of Augsburg and Bamberg, and Ulric of Augsburg, had full authority to sign these terms, which Henry IV. might almost have been ashamed of at Canosa. They Jan. 1344. swore on the Gospels and by the soul of the Emperor, that he would truly observe them. They signed them in full consistory, in the presence of twenty-three Cardinals and numbers of French, Italian, and German prelates.

But even yet the insatiate pretensions of the Roman See had not reached their height. The Emperor had drunk the very lees of humiliation; the Empire itself must be prostrate, as of old, at the feet of the Popedom: one more precedent must be furnished for the total subordination of the temporal to the spiritual power. New articles were prepared; the Emperor was to swear that all acts hitherto done by himself or in his name were invalid; he was to entreat the Pope, when he removed the ban of excommunication, to give validity

* "Res, statum, velle et nolle, nihil sibi proprio arbitrio retinendo, absolute et liberaliter in manibus dicti Domini nostri Papæ."—Lud. IV. Submissio, in Baluz. Miscellan. ii. 272, 273.

to such acts; he was to make oath, not only not to attack the territory of the Church, but especially the three dependent kingdoms, Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica; that he would enter into no alliance with heretics, whether men, princes, or kings; that he would issue no ordinance as Emperor or King of the Romans without special permission of the Roman See; that he would supplicate the Pope, after absolution, to grant him the administration of the empire; that he would make the States of the empire swear by word and by writing to stand by the Church. If he should not fulfil all these terms, should any doubt arise concerning these articles, the Pope alone was to judge thereof.

Louis, without appeasing his enemies, had sunk into the most abject contempt with his rightful partisans: this contempt would not condescend to disguise or dis-
 Sept. 1344. Indignation of Germany. semble itself. At a Diet at Frankfort the Emperor ventured to appear, and to submit to the States of Germany his own shame and the shame of the Empire. Some lingering personal respect for Louis and for his high office constrained the assembly; but though he had forfeited his own dignity, they would maintain theirs. Wicker, the Proto-notary of Trèves, in a long and skilful speech, showed the usurpation of the Pope on the rights of the Empire. An embassy was determined to represent to Pope Clement that the conditions to which Louis had submitted could not be fulfilled without violating his oath to the States. In other quarters there were loud murmurs that an Emperor who had so debased the holy office, ought to be compelled to abdicate: the throne had been so degraded by the Bavarian, that no Bavarian should ever hereafter be raised to the throne.

The Pope, after some time, took a strong aggressive

measure. Henry of Virneburg, Archbishop of Mentz, was deposed by his sole authority.^p Gerlach, ^{April 11,}
a brother of the powerful Count of Holland, ^{1348.}
whose estates were in the neighbourhood, was elevated, though but twenty years old, to the Metropolitan See.

The Pope scrupled not to break, if he could, the bruised reed. A new Bull of excommunication, ^{April 13,}
on the pretence that Louis had betrayed ^{1348.}
reluctance or tardiness in the fulfilment of the treaty, was promulgated, which in the vigour and fury of its curses transcended all that had yet, in the wildest times, issued from the Roman See. "We humbly implore the Divine power to confute the madness and crush the pride of the aforesaid Louis, to cast him down by the might of the Lord's right hand, to deliver him into the hands of his enemies, and of those that persecute him. Let the unforeseen snare fall upon him! Be he accursed in his going out and his coming in! The Lord strike him with madness, and blindness, and fury! May the heavens rain lightning upon him! May the wrath of Almighty God, and of the blessed apostles St. Peter and St. Paul, turn against him in this world and in the world to come! May the whole world war upon him! May the earth open and swallow him up quick! May his name be blotted out in his own generation, his memory perish from the earth! May the elements be against him, his dwelling be desolate! The merits of all the Saints at rest confound him and execute vengeance on him in this life! Be his sons cast forth from their homes and be delivered before his eyes into the hands of his enemies!"^q The Electors were called upon to proceed at once to the creation of a new Emperor.

^p Albert. Argentin. p. 135.

^q Raynaldus, sub ann. .

Of these electors two only, his son the Margrave of Brandenburg, and the deposed Archbishop of Mentz, adhered to Louis. The three ecclesiastical electors, including Gerlach of Mentz, the King of Bohemia, the Duke of Saxony, were arrayed against him. The Elector Palatine vacillated between the parties. John, the King of Bohemia, the rival of Louis, now embittered by the affair of the Tyrol, was blind, and so disqualified for the Imperial crown. His son, Charles of Moravia (of the age of thirty-six), was the representative of the house of Luxemburg. The Pope, not without fierce debates in the consistory, had determined to put forward Charles. The French cardinals, headed by the Cardinal Perigord, the Gascons by the Cardinal de Comminges, came to high words in the presence of the Pope. Each charged the other with treason to the Church. De Comminges accused Talleyrand de Perigord as implicated in the murder of Andrew, King of Naples. The Pope had refused to hear the ambassadors of the King of Hungary, when they demanded vengeance for that murder. The dispute almost came to a personal conflict. Talleyrand rose up to strike De Comminges; the Pope and the other cardinals parted them with difficulty. They retired in sullen wrath; each fortified his palace and armed his retainers. It was long before they were brought even to the outward show of amity.*

Charles obtained not the support of the Pope without hard and humiliating conditions. He swore to those conditions before the Conclave. Eight days after his election he was to ratify his oath. He was to rescind all the acts of Louis of Bavaria; he was so religiously to respect the territories of the Church to their widest

* Raynaldus, sub ann.

extent, that he was only to enter Rome for his coronation, and on the day of his coronation to depart again from the city.

The Electors met at Rhense; the Empire was declared long vacant; Charles of Moravia was proclaimed King of the Romans. But Frankfort had shut her gates against the Electors. Aix-la-Chapelle shut ^{July 11,} her gates against the new Emperor. Louis, ^{1346.} low as he had fallen, almost below contempt, had still partisans; Germany at least had partisans. An assembly at Spire declared the election at Rhense void; and denied the right of the Pope to depose an Emperor.

War, a terrible civil war, seemed inevitable. But gratitude, kindred, the unextinguished passion for chivalrous adventure, led the blind John of Bohemia, accompanied by his son, the elected Emperor, to join the army of the King of France, now advancing to repel the invasion of Edward III. of England. The ^{Battle of} blind King fell nobly on the field of Crecy. ^{Crecy.} ^{Aug 26, 1346.} His Imperial son was the first to fly; he was of the few that escaped the carnage of that disastrous day. Charles was thus King of Bohemia. As King of the Romans, though Aix-la-Chapelle and Cologne still closed their gates, he was crowned at Bonn. But Germany scoffed at the Priests' Emperor; the ally of the discomfited King of France, the fugitive of Crecy, made but slow progress either by arms or by policy. The unexpected death of Louis of Bavaria left him ^{Death of} without rival. Louis died the last Emperor ^{Louis of} excommunicated by the Pope; the Emperor, ^{Bavaria.} of all those that had been involved in strife with the ^{October.} Papacy, who had demeaned himself to the lowest baseness of submission.

Yet Germany would not acknowledge an Emperor

nominated by the Pope. The Empire was offered to Edward of England; it was declined by him. The election then fell on Gunther of Schwarzenburg.^a His resignation and his death relieved Charles from a dangerous rival; but Charles was obliged to submit to a new election at Frankfort. His coronation at Aix-la-Chapelle at length established his right to the throne. Still he was recognised not as appointed by the Pope, but raised by the free choice of Germany to the kingdom of the Romans.^b

In Italy, tragical and wonderful events marked the Pontificate of Clement VI. In Naples, King Robert had closed his long and busy reign. The crown had descended to his granddaughter, the heiress of the Duke of Calabria. Joanna was wedded in her early youth to her kinsman Andrew, of the royal house of Hungary. Joanna now stood arraigned before the world as an adulteress; if not as an accomplice, as having connived at the murder of her husband.^c Louis, King of Hungary, invaded the kingdom with a strong force to avenge his brother's death, and to assert his right to the throne as heir of Charles Martel. Joanna fled to Avignon; she was for a time placed under custody; but the Pope granted a dispensation for her marriage with her kinsman, Louis of Tarento. She returned to Naples, having sold to the Pope the city of Avignon, part of her kingdom of Provence.^d The Pope thus recognised her

^a Schmidt, Geschichte, p. 359.

^b Hervart von Hohenburg published two learned works, in defence of Louis of Bavaria against Bzovius, the continuator of Baronius. They contain many of the documents.

^c Compare Giannone, l. xxiii. Her-

is favourable to the character and abilities of Joanna.

^d Vit. Clement VI. apud Baluzium. The price was 80,000 florins of gold of Florence. Lunig, quoted in Giannone, xxiii. 1.

title; he became henceforth the lord and owner of Avignon. War continued to rage in Naples between the Hungarian faction and that of Joanna and Louis of Tarento. At length the determination of the contest (the cause having, as will appear, been heard on his tribunal by Nicolo Rienzi at Rome) was referred to the Pope, the lord paramount of the kingdom of Naples. After a year's examination by three Cardinals, Joanna pleaded that she was under a magic spell, which compelled her to hate her husband. Against such a plea who would venture to deny her innocence? And in this justification the Pope, and on the Pope's authority the world, acquiesced. The award of Clement absolved Joanna from the crime:† with her husband, Louis Prince of Tarento, she was restored to the throne. Peace was established between Naples and Hungary. Rome, meantime, had beheld the rise and fall of Rienzi.

Peace in
1351.

† The King of Hungary openly accused the Cardinal Talleyrand Perigord as an accomplice in the murder.

CHAPTER X.

Rienzi.

ROME for nearly forty years had been deserted by the Popes. she had ceased to be the religious capital of the world. She retained the shrines and the reliques of the great apostles and the famous old churches, the Lateran, St. Peter, and St. Paul; some few pilgrims came from all parts of Europe to the city still hallowed by these sacred monuments, to the Jerusalem of the West. But the tide of homage and tribute which had flowed for centuries towards the shrine of the successors of St. Peter had now taken another course. All the ecclesiastical causes and the riches they poured into the papal treasury; the constant influx of business which created large expenditure; the thousands of strangers, which year after year used to be seen in Rome from motives secular or religious, now thronged the expanding streets of Avignon. Rome, thus degraded from her high ecclesiastical position, was thrown back more forcibly than ever on her older reminiscences. She had lost her new, she would welcome with redoubled energy whatever might recall her ancient supremacy. At the height of the Papal power old Rome had been perpetually breaking out into rebellion against younger Rome. Her famous titles had always seemed to work like magic on her ear. It was now Republican and now Imperial Rome which threw off disdainfully the thralldom of the Papal dominion. The Consul Crescentius, the Senator Brancasione, Arnold

of Brescia, the Othos, the Fredericks, Henry of Luxemburg, Louis of Bavaria, had proclaimed a new world-ruling Roman republic, or a new world-ruling Roman Empire. Dante's universal monarchy, Petrarch's aspirations for the independence of Italy, fixed the seat of their power, splendour, liberty, at Rome.

The history of Rienzi may now be related almost in Rienzi's own words, and that history, thus revealed, shows his intimate connexion not only with Roman and Papal affairs, but is strangely moulded up with the Christianity of his time.* His autobiography ascends even beyond his cradle. The Tribune disdains the vulgar parentage of the Transteverine innkeeper and the washerwoman, whom Rome believed to be the authors of his birth. With a kind of proud shamelessness he claims descent, spurious indeed, from the Imperial house of Luxemburg. His account is strangely minute. "When Henry of Luxemburg went up to be crowned (May, 1312) at Rome, the church of St. Peter, in which the coronation ought to have been celebrated, was in the power of his enemies, the Roman Guelfs and the King of Naples. Strong barricades and defences, as well as the deep Tiber, separated the two parts of the city. Henry was therefore compelled to hold his coronation in the church of St. John Lateran. But the

Rienzi.

* These documents, unknown to Gibbon and to later writers, were published by Dr. Papencordt, "*Cola di Rienzi und seine Zeit*," Hamburg and Gotha, 1841. (Compare *Quarterly Review*, vol. lxx. p. 346, by the author.) They are chiefly letters addressed by Rienzi to Charles, Emperor and King of Bohemia, and to the Archbishop of Prague, written during his residence in Bohemia after his first fall. They throw a strong, if not a clear and steady light upon his character. These documents were first discovered and made use of by Pelzel, the historian of Bohemia. The original MS. is not to be found, but the copy made by Pelzel for his own use is in the library of Count Thun at Tetschen. It was published almost entire by Dr. Papencordt.

religious Emperor was very anxious, before he left Rome, to pay his devotions at the shrine of St. Peter, and to see the church which had witnessed the coronation of so many Emperors. He put on the garb of a pilgrim, and in this disguise, with a single attendant, found his way into the church of St. Peter. A report spread abroad that the Emperor had passed the barriers in secret; the gates and bridges were instantly closed and jealously watched; and a herald was sent to put the Guelfic faction on their guard, and to offer a large reward for his capture. As soon as the Emperor and his attendant perceived this movement, they stole hastily along a street by the bank of the river, and, finding all the passages closed, they took refuge, under pretence of going in to drink, in the hostel or small inn kept by Rienzi's supposed father. There they took possession of a small chamber, and lay hid for ten or fifteen days. The Emperor's attendant went out to procure provisions: in the mean time, Rienzi's mother, who was young and handsome, ministered to the Emperor (Rienzi's own words!), 'as their handmaids did to holy David and to the righteous Abraham.'" Henry afterwards escaped to the Aventine, retired from Rome, and died in the August of that year. "But as there is nothing hidden that does not come to light, when his mother found out the high rank of her lover, she could not help, like a very woman, telling the secret of her pregnancy by him to her particular friend; this particular friend, like a woman, told it to another particular friend, and so on, till the rumour got abroad. His mother, too, on her deathbed, confessed the whole, as it was her duty, to the priest. Rienzi, after his mother's death, was sent by his father to Anagni, where he remained till his twentieth year. On his return, this marvellous story was related

Story of his
birth.

to him by some of his mother's friends, and by the priest who attended her deathbed.^b Out of respect for his mother's memory, Rienzi was always impatient of the scandal, and denied it in public, but he believed it in his heart,^c and the imperial blood stirring in his veins, he began to disdain his plebeian life, to dream of honours and glories far above his lowly condition. He sought every kind of instruction; he began to read and study history, and the lives of great and good men, till he became impatient to realise in his actions the lofty lessons which he read." Was this an audacious fiction, and when first promulgated? Was it after his fall, to attach himself to the imperial house when he offered himself, as will hereafter appear, as an instrument to reinstate the Cæsarean power in Italy?^d

Be this as it may, the adolescence of Rienzi was passed in obscurity at Anagni. He then returned to Rome, a youth of great beauty, with a smile which gave a peculiar and remarkable expression to his countenance. He married the daughter of a burgher, who brought him a dowry of 150 golden florins; he had three children, one

^b The priest must have heard it sub sigillo confessionis; but Roman priests in those days may not have been over strict.

^c There are strong obvious objections to this story. The German writers know nothing of Henry's ten or fifteen days' absence from his camp, which could hardly have been concealed, as it must have caused great alarm. Consider too Rienzi's long suspicious silence, though he labours to account for it. He endeavoured, he avers, to suppress the report at the time of his greatness, because any kind of German connexion would have been highly un-

popular in Rome; but that the rumour prevailed among many persons of both sexes and all ages. Rienzi, on the other hand, appeals to a Roman noble, who at the court of Louis of Bavaria had spoken freely of his great secret, "*Tum sibi quam suis ut audivi domesticis hanc conditionem meam sibi conscribam revelavit.*"

^d De Sade had picked up what may seem a loose reminiscence of the story. The mother of Rienzi, he says, was reported to be the daughter of a bastard of King Henry. This could not be. The whole is in the *Urkunde* of Dr. Papencordt, p. xxii.

son and two daughters. He embraced the profession of a notary. But his chief occupation was poring over those sacred antiquities of Rome, which exercised so powerful an influence on his mind. Rome had already welcomed the first dawn of those classical studies, publicly, proudly, in the coronation of Petrarch.* The respect for the ancient monuments of Rome, and for her famous writers, which the great poet had endeavoured to inculcate by his language and by his example, crept into the depths of Rienzi's soul. The old historian, Fortefiocca, gives as his favourite authors Livy, Cicero, Seneca, Valerius Maximus; but "the magnificent deeds and words of the great Cæsar were his chief delight." His leisure was passed among the stupendous and yet august remains, the ruins, or as yet hardly ruins, of elder Rome. He was not less deeply impregnated with the Biblical language and religious imagery of his day, though he declares that his meditations on the profound subjects of providence, foreknowledge, will, and fate, were not drawn from the holy wisdom of Gregory or Augustine, but were droppings from the less deep and transparent springs of the Roman patricians, Boethius and Symmachus, Livy, Cicero, and Seneca. Even now a religious has begun to mingle with the Roman fanaticism of the youth.

Already, too, had Rienzi learned to contrast the miserable and servile state of his countrymen with that of their free and glorious ancestors. "Where are those old Romans? Where their justice? Would that I had lived in their times!"† The sense of personal wrong was wrought up with these more lofty and patriotic feelings. His younger brother was murdered; and

* Apud Muratori, R. I. S.

† The passage is quoted by Papencordt.

Rienzi, unable to obtain redress from the partial and disdainful justice of the nobles, vowed vengeance for the innocent blood. And already had he assumed the office of champion of the poor. As the heads of the mercantile guilds, or the Roman Schools, called themselves by the proud name of Consuls, so Rienzi took the title of Consul of the orphans, the widows, and the indigent.

Rienzi must have attained some fame, or some notoriety, to have been either alone or among the delegates of the people sent on the public mission to Clement VI. at Avignon.^a These ambassadors were instructed to make three demands, some of them peremptory, of the Pope:—I. To confirm the magistracy appointed by the Romans. II. To entreat his Holiness at least to revisit Rome. III. To appoint the Jubilee for every fiftieth year. The eloquence of Rienzi so charmed the Pope that he desired to hear him every day. He enthralled the admiration of a greater than the Pope: Petrarch here learned to know him whose fame was to be the subject of one of his noblest odes.^b

Rienzi wrote in triumph to Rome.^c The Pope had acceded to two of the demands of the people: he had granted the Jubilee on the fiftieth year; he had promised, when the affairs of Rome should permit, to revisit Rome. Rienzi calls on the mountains around, and on

Rienzi at
Avignon.

^a There seem to have been two embassies, successive or simultaneous, one headed by Stephen Colonna, and two other nobles, with Petrarch; another (perhaps later), in which Rienzi signed himself "*Nicolaus Laurenti, Romanus, consul orphanorum viduarum et pauperum, unicus popularis legatus.*"—Hobhouse, "*Illustrations of Childe*

Harold."

^b The "*Spirto gentil.*" I cannot doubt that this canzone was addressed to Rienzi.

^c These letters were published from the Turin MSS. by Mr. Hobhouse (Lord Broughton), in his "*Illustrations of Childe Harold.*"

the hills and plains, to break out into joy. "May the Roman city arise from her long prostration, ascend the throne of her majesty, cast off the garment of her widowhood, and put on the bridal purple. Let the crown of liberty adorn her head, and rings of gold her neck; let her reassume the sceptre of justice; and, regenerate in every virtue, go forth in her wedding attire to meet her bridegroom. . . . Behold the most merciful Lamb of God that confoundeth sin! The most Holy Pontiff, the father of the city, the bridegroom of the Lord, moved by the cries and complaints and wailings of his bride, compassionating her sufferings, her calamities, and her ruin—astonished at the regeneration of the city, the glory of the people, the joy and salvation of the world—by the inspiration of the Holy Ghost—opening the bosom of his clemency—has pledged himself to have mercy upon us, and promises grace and redemption to the whole world, and to the nations remission of sins." After all this vague and high-flown Scriptural imagery, Rienzi passes to his classical reminiscences:—"What Scipio, what Cæsar, or Metellus, or Marcellus, or Fabius, can be so fairly deemed the deliverer of their country, or so justly honoured with a statue? They won hard victories by the calamities of war, by the bloodshed of citizens: he, unsolicited, by one holy and triumphant word, has achieved a victory over the present and future disasters of his country, re-established the Roman commonwealth, and rescued the despairing people from death."

Whether Pope Clement was conscious that he was deluding the ardent Rienzi with false hopes, while the eloquence of Rienzi palled in the ears of the French Papal Court; whether Rienzi betrayed his suspicions of the Pope's sincerity, or the Cardinal Colonna became

jealous of his influence with the Pope, he soon fell into disfavour. At Avignon he was reduced to great poverty, and, probably from illness, was glad to take refuge in a hospital.^k The Cardinal, however, perhaps from contemptuous compassion, reconciled him with the Pope. Rienzi returned to Rome with the appointment of Notary in the Papal Court, and a flattering testimonial to his character, as a man zealous for the welfare of the city.

At Rome, Rienzi executed his office of Notary by deputy, and confined himself to his studies, and to his profound and rankling meditations Rienzi in Rome on the miseries and oppressions of the people. The luxury of the nobles was without check; the lives of the men and the honour of the women seemed to be yielded up to their caprice and their lust. All this Rienzi attributed, in a great degree, to the criminal abandonment of his flock by the Supreme Pontiff. "Would that our pastor had been content with this scandal alone, that he should dwell in Avignon, having deserted his flock! But far worse than this: he nurses, cherishes, and favours those very wolves, the fear of which, as he pretends, keeps him away from Rome, that their teeth and their talons may be stronger to devour his sheep. On the Orsini, on the Colonnas, and on the other nobles whom he knows to be infamous as public robbers, the destroyers, both spiritual and temporal, of his holy episcopal city, and the devourers of his own peculiar flock, he confers dignities and honours; he even bestows on them rich prelacies, in order that they may wage those wars which they have not wealth enough to support, from the treasures of the Church; and when he has been

^k Fortificca, apud Muratori.

perpetually entreated by the people that, as a compassionate father, he would at least appoint some good man, a foreigner, as ruler over his episcopal city, he would never consent; but, in contempt of the petitions of the people, he placed the sword in the hands of some madman, and invested the tyrants of the people with the authority of Senators, for the sole purpose, as it is credibly known and proved, that the Roman flock, thus preyed on by ravening wolves, should not have strength or courage to demand the residence of their Pastor in his episcopal seat."^m

Rienzi, thus despairing of all alleviation of the calamities of the people from the ecclesiastical power, sat brooding over his hopes of reawakening the old Roman spirit of liberty. In this high design he proceeded with wonderful courage, address, and resolution. He submitted to every kind of indignity, and assumed every disguise which might advance his end. He stooped to be admitted as a buffoon to amuse, rather than as a companion to enlighten, the haughty nobles in the Colonna Palace. He has been called the modern Brutus:ⁿ he alleges higher examples. "I confess that, drunken after the parching fever of my soul, in order to put down the predominant injustice, and to persuade the people to union, I often feigned and dissembled; made myself a simpleton and a stage-player; was by turns serious or silly, cunning, earnest, and timid, as occasion required, to promote my work of love. David danced before the ark, and appeared as a madman before the King; Judith stood before Holofernes, bland, crafty, and dissembling; and Jacob obtained his blessing

^m Thus he wrote later to the Archbishop of Pragus.—Papencordt, *Urkunde*, p. xlii.

ⁿ By Gibbon. See *Urkunde*, p. xlii.

by cunning: so I, when I took up the cause of the people against their worst tyrants, had to deal with no frank and open antagonists, but with men of shifts and wiles, the subtlest and most deceitful." Once in the assembly of the people he was betrayed by his indignation into a premature appeal to their yet unawakened sympathies. He reproached his fellow representatives with their disregard of the sufferings of the people, and ventured to let loose his eloquence on the blessings of good order. The only answer was a blow from a Norman kinsman of the Colonnas; in the simple language of the historian, a box on the ear that rang again.*

Allegorical picture was the language of the times. The Church had long employed it to teach or to enforce Christian truth or Christian obedience among the rude and unlettered people. It had certainly been used for political purposes.† Dante may show how completely the Italian mind must have been familiarised with this suggestive imagery. Many of the great names of the time—the Orsini, the Mastini, the Cani, the Lucchi—either lent themselves to or grew out of this verbal symbolism. Rienzi seized on the yet unrestricted freedom of painting, as a modern demagogue might on the freedom of the press, to instil his own feelings of burning shame at the common degradation and oppression. All the historians have dwelt on the masterpiece of his pictorial eloquence:—On a sinking ship, without mast or sail, sat a noble lady in widow's weeds, with dishevelled hair and her hands crossed over her breast. Above was written, "This is Rome." She was surrounded by four other ships, in

Allegorical
painting.

* "Un sonante gotata,"—Fortefiocca.

† Dr. Papencordt cites many examples.

which sat women who personated Babylon, Carthage, Tyre, Jerusalem. "Through unrighteousness," ran the legend, "these fell to ruin." An inscription hung above, "Thou, O Rome, art exalted above all; we await thy downfall." Three islands appeared beside the ship; in one was Italy, in another four of the cardinal virtues, in the third Christian Faith. Each had its appropriate inscription. Over Faith was written, "O highest Father, Ruler, and Lord! when Rome sinks, where find I refuge?" Bitter satire was not wanting. Four rows of winged beasts stood above, who blew their horns, and directed the pitiless storm against the sinking vessel. The lions, wolves, and bears denoted, as the legend explained, the mighty barons and traitorous senators; the dogs, the swine, and the bulls, were the counsellors, the base partisans of the nobles; the sheep, the serpents, and foxes, were the officers, the false judges, and notaries; the hares, cats, goats, and apes, the robbers, murderers, adulterers, thieves, among the people. Above was, "God in his majesty come down to judgement, with two swords, as in the Apocalypse, out of his mouth." St. Peter and St. Paul were beneath, on either side, in the attitude of supplication.

Rienzi describes another of his well-known attempts to work upon the populace, and to impress them with the sense of the former greatness of Rome.^a The great bronze tablet^b containing the decree by which the Senate conferred the Empire upon Vespasian, had been employed by Boniface VIII., out of jealousy to the Emperor, as Rienzi asserts,^c to form part of an altar in the

^a Letter to the Archbishop of Prague, in Papencordt.

^b The *lex regia*, Imperium. This tablet is still in the Capitoline Museum.

^c This was written when Rienzi's object was to obtain favour with the Emperor (Charles) at the expense of the Pope.

Lateran Church, with the inscription turned inward, so that it could not be read. Rienzi brought forth this tablet, placed it on a kind of high scaffold in the Church, and summoned the people to a lecture on its meaning,^t in which he enlarged on the former power and dominion of Rome."

Rienzi's hour came at length. Throughout his acts the ancient traditions of Pagan Rome mingled with the religious observances of the Christian capital. The day after Ash Wednesday (A.D. 1347) a scroll appeared on the doors of the Church of St. George in Velabro: "Ere long Rome will return to her good estate." Nightly meetings were held on the Aventine (Rienzi may have learned from Livy the secession of the people to that hill). Rienzi spoke with his most impassioned eloquence. He compared the misery, slavery, debasement of Rome, with her old glory, liberty, universal dominion. He wept; his hearers mingled their tears with his. He summoned them to freedom. There could be no want of means; the revenue of the city amounted to 300,000 golden florins. He more than hinted that the Pope would not disapprove of their proceedings. All swore a solemn oath of freedom.

On the Vigil of Pentecost, the Festival of the Effusion of the Holy Ghost, the Roman people were summoned by the sound of trumpet to appear unarmed at the Capitol on the following day. All that night Rienzi was hearing, in the Church of St. Angelo, the Thirty Masses of the Holy Ghost. "It was the

Feb. 18.

Meeting on
the Aventine.May 20.
Revolution.

^t This probably was somewhat later.

"It was in this speech that he made the whimsical antiquarian blunder, which Gibbon takes credit for detecting

He rendered "pomærium," of which he did not know the meaning, as "pomarium," and made Italy the garden of Rome.

Holy Ghost that inspired this holy deed." At ten o'clock in the morning he came forth from the Church in full armour, with his head bare: twenty-five of the sworn conspirators were around him. Three banners went before—the banner of freedom, borne by Cola Gualtato, on which appeared, on a red ground, Rome seated on her twin lions, with the globe and the palm-branch in her hand. The second was white; on it St. Paul with the sword and diadem of justice: it was borne by the Notary, Stefanello Magnacuccia. On the third was St. Peter with the keys. By the side of Rienzi was Raimond, Bishop of Orvieto, the Pope's Vicar: around was a guard of one hundred horsemen. Amid the acclamations of the thronging multitudes they ascended the Capitol. The Count di Cecco Mancino was commanded to read the Laws of the Good Estate. These laws had something of the wild justice of wild times. All causes were to be determined within fourteen days; every murderer was to suffer death, the false accuser the punishment of the crime charged against the innocent man. No house was to be pulled down; those that fell escheated to the State. Each Rione (there were thirteen) was to maintain one hundred men on foot, twenty-five horse: these received a shield and moderate pay from the State; if they fell in the public service, their heirs received, those of the foot one hundred livres, of the horse one hundred florins. The treasury of the State was charged with the support of widows, orphans, convents. Each Rione was to have its granary for corn; the revenues of the city, the hearth-money, salt-tax, tolls on bridges and wharves, were to be administered for the public good. The fortresses, bridges, gates, were no longer to be guarded by the Barons, but by Captains chosen by the people. No

Baron might possess a stronghold within the city; all were to be surrendered to the magistrates. The Barons were to be responsible, under a penalty of one thousand marks of silver, for the security of the roads around the city. The people shouted their assent to the new constitution. The senators Agapito Colonna, Roberto Orsini, were ignominiously dismissed. Rienzi was invested in dictatorial power—power over life and limb, power to pardon, power to establish the Good Estate in Rome and her domain. A few days later he took the title of Tribune. “Nicolas, by the grace of Jesus Christ, the Severe and Merciful, Tribune of Freedom, Peace, and Justice, the Deliverer of the Roman Republic.”

The nobles, either stunned by this unexpected revolution, of which they had despised the signs Awe of the Nobles. and omens, or divided among themselves, looked on in wondering and sullen apathy. Some even professed to disdain it as some new public buffoonery of Rienzi. The old Stephen Colonna was opportunely absent from the city; on his return he answered to the summons of the Tribune, “Tell the fool that if he troubles me with his insolence, I will throw him from the windows of the Capitol!” The tolling of the bell of the Capitol replied to the haughty noble. Rome in all her quarters was in arms. Colonna fled with difficulty to one of his strongholds near Palestrina. The younger Stephen Colonna appeared in arms with his partisans before the Capitol, where the Tribune was seated on the bench of justice. The Tribune advanced in arms to meet him. Colonna, either overawed, or with some respect for the Roman liberty, swore on the Holy Eucharist to take no hostile measure against the Good Estate. All the Colonnas, the Orsini, the Savelli,

were compelled to yield up their fortress-palaces, to make oath that they would protect no robbers or malefactors, to keep the roads secure, to supply provisions to the city, to appear in arms or without arms at the summons of the magistracy. All orders of the city took the same oath—clergy, gentry, judges, notaries, merchants, shopkeepers, artisans: they swore to maintain the laws of the Good Estate.

Within fifteen days, so boasts Rienzi, the old, inveterate pride of this barbarous Patriciate was prostrate at the feet of the Tribune. History may record in his own words the rapidity with which he achieved this wonderful victory. “By the Divine grace no King, or Duke, or Prince, or Marquis in Italy ever surpassed me in the shortness of the time in which I rose to legitimate power, and earned fame which reached even to the Saracens. It was achieved in seven months, a period which would hardly suffice for a king to subdue one of the Roman nobles. On the first day of my tribunate (an office which, from the time that the Empire sank into decrepitude, had been vacant under tyrannical rule for more than five hundred years) I, for God was with me, scattered with my consuming breath before my face, or rather before the face of God, all these nobles, these haters of God and of justice. And thus, in truth, on the day of Pentecost, was that word fulfilled which is chanted on that day in honour of the Holy Ghost, ‘Let God arise, and let his enemies be scattered,’ and again, ‘Send forth thy Holy Ghost, and thou shalt renew the face of the earth.’ Certainly hitherto no Pontiff or Emperor had been able to expel the nobles from the city, who had in general rather triumphed over than submitted to Popes and Emperors; and yet these nobles, thus terribly expelled

Their submission.

and exiled, when I cited them to appear again in fifteen days, I had prostrate at my feet, swearing obedience to my decrees." * The old historian, in his own graphic phrase, confirms the words of Rienzi, "How stood they trembling with fear." †

The primary laws of the new Republic had provided for financial reforms. The taxes became more productive, less onerous: the salt-duty alone increased five or six fold. The constitution had regulated the military organisation. At the sound of the bell of the Capitol appeared in arms from the thirteen Rioni of the city three hundred and sixty horse, thirteen hundred foot. The open, patient, inexorable justice of Rienzi respected not, it delighted to humiliate, the haughtiest of the nobles. It extended not only throughout the city, but to all the country around. The woods rejoiced that they concealed no robbers; the oxen ploughed the field undisturbed; the pilgrims crowded without fear to the shrines of the saints and the apostles; the traders might leave their precious wares by the road-side in perfect safety; tyrants trembled; good men rejoiced at their emancipation from slavery. * The Tribune's hand fell Justice of
Rienzi. heavily on the great houses. Petruccio Frangipani, Lord of Civita Lavigna, and Luca Savelli, were thrown into prison; the Colonnas and the Orsini bowed for a time their proud heads; the chief of the Orsini was condemned for neglecting the protection of the highways; a mule laden with oil had been stolen. Peter Agapito Colonna, the deposed senator, was arrested for some crime in the public streets. † Rome was summoned to

* Urkunde, xxxiv.

† Urkunde.

† "Dei che stavano paurosi!"

* Fortassecca, p. 41.

witness the ignominious execution of Martino Gaetani, nephew of two Cardinals, but newly married, for the robbery of a stranded ship at the mouth of the Tiber. The Tribune spared not the sacred persons of the clergy: a monk of S. Anastasio was hanged for many crimes. Rienzi boasted that he had wrought a moral as well as a civil revolution. All who had been banished since 1340 were recalled, and pledged to live in peace. "It was hardly to be believed that the Roman people, till now full of dissension and corrupted by every kind of vice, should be so soon reduced to a state of unanimity, to so great a love of justice, virtue, and peace; that hatred, assaults, murder, and rapine should be subdued and put an end to. There is now no person in the city who dares to play at forbidden games or blasphemously to invoke God and his saints; there is no layman who keeps his concubine: all enemies are reconciled; even wives who had been long cast off return to their husbands."^b

The magic effect of the Tribune's sudden apparition at the head of a new Roman Republic, which seemed to aspire to the sway of ancient Rome over Italy, if not over all the world, is thus glowingly described in his own language: this shows at least the glorious ends of Rienzi's ambition. "Did I not restore peace among the cities which were distracted by factions? Did I not decree that all the citizens who were banished by party violence, with their wretched wives and children, should be readmitted? Had I not begun to extinguish the party names of Guelf and Ghibelline, for which numberless victims had perished body and soul, and to reduce the city of Rome and all Italy into one har-

^b Letter to a friend at Avignon, from the Turin MS.—Hobhouse, p. 537.

monious, peaceful, holy confederacy? The sacred standards and banners of all the cities were gathered, and, as a testimony to our hallowed association, consecrated and offered with their golden rings on the day of the Assumption of our Blessed Lady. . . . I received the homage and submission of the Counts and Barons, and of almost all the people of Italy. I was honoured by solemn embassies and letters from the Emperor of Constantinople and the King of England. The Queen of Naples submitted herself and her kingdom to the protection of the Tribune. The King of Hungary, by two stately embassies, with great urgency brought his cause against the Queen and her nobles before my tribunal. And I venture to say further that the fame of the Tribune alarmed the Soldan of Babylon. The Christian pilgrims to the Sepulchre of our Lord related all the wonderful and unheard-of circumstances of the reformation in Rome to the Christian and Jewish inhabitants of Jerusalem; both Christians and Jews celebrated the event with unusual festivities. When the Soldan inquired the cause of these rejoicings, and received this answer about Rome, he ordered all the towns and cities on the coast to be fortified and put in a state of defence.”*

Nor was this altogether an idle boast. The rival Emperors, Louis of Bavaria and Charles of Bohemia, regarded not his summons to submit their differences to the arbitration of Rome. But before the judgement-seat of Rienzi stood the representatives of Louis of Hungary, of Queen Joanna of Naples and Louis Prince of Tarento, the husband of the Queen, and of Charles

* I have put together two passages; the latter from his letter to the Emperor.—Papencordt, Urkunde.

of Durazzo who claimed the throne in right of his wife, Joanna's sister. They were prepared to obey the award of the Tribune, who applied to himself the words of the Psalm, "He shall judge the people in equity." An Archbishop pleaded before the tribunal of Rienzi. The kingdom of Naples, held in fee, as long asserted, of the Pope, seemed to submit itself to the Seignioralty of the Tribune of Rome.

It is impossible to determine whether, as Rienzi himself in one place admits, it was mere Rienzi's titles. vanity or a vague and not impolitic desire to gather round his own name all the glorious reminiscences of every period of Roman history, and so to rivet his power on the minds of men, which induced Rienzi to accumulate on himself so many lofty but discordant appellations. The Roman Republic, the Roman Empire in its periods of grandeur and of decline, the Church, and the Chivalry of the middle ages, were blended together in the strange pomp of his ceremonies and the splendid array of his titles. He was the Tribune of the people, to remind them of the days of their liberty. He called himself Augustus, and chose to be crowned in the month of August, because that month was called after the "great Emperor, the conqueror of Cleopatra."⁴ He called himself Severo, not merely to awe the noble malcontents with the stern terrors of his justice, but in respect to the philosopher, the last of the Romans, Severinus Boethius. He was knighted according to the full ceremonial of chivalry, having bathed in the porphyry vessel in which, according to the legend, Pope Silvester cleansed Constantine the Great of his leprosy. Among the banners which he bestowed on the cities of

⁴ Uikunda, xi. and lxx.

Italy, which did him a kind of homage, that of Perugia was inscribed "Long live the citizens of Perugia and the memory of Constantine." Sienna received the arms of the Tribune and those of Rome, the wolf and her twin founders. Florence had the banner of Italy, in which Rome was represented between two other females, designating Italy and the Christian faith.

Rienzi professed the most profound respect for religion: throughout he endeavoured to sanction and hallow his proceedings by the ceremonial Respect for the Church. of the Church. He professed the most submissive reverence for the Pope. The Papal Vicar, the Bishop of Orvieto, a vain, weak man, was flattered by the idle honour of being his associate without any power in the government. Though many of the Tribune's measures encroached boldly on the prerogatives of the Pontiff, yet he was inclined, as far as possible, to encourage the notion that his rise and his power were, if not authorised, approved by his Holiness. He asserts, indeed, that he was the greatest bulwark of the Church. "Who, in the memory of man, among all the sovereigns of Rome or of Italy, ever showed greater love for ecclesiastical persons, or so strictly protected ecclesiastical rights? Did I not, above all things, respect monasteries, hospitals, and other temples of God, and, whenever complaint was made, enforce the peaceful restitution of all their estates and properties of which they had been despoiled by the Nobles? This restitution they could never obtain by all the Bulls and Charters of the Supreme Pontiff; and now that I am deposed, they deplore all their former losses. I wish that the Supreme Pontiff would condescend to promote me or put me to death, according to the judgement of all religious persons, of the monks, and the whole

clergy." 'The Tribune's language, asserting himself to be under the special influence of the Holy Ghost, which from the first awoke the jealousy of the Pope, he explains away, with more ingenuity, perhaps, than ingenuousness.* "No power but that of the Spirit of God could have united the turbulent and dissolute Roman people in his favour. It was their unity, not his words and actions, which manifestly displayed the presence of the Holy Ghost." At all events, in the proudest days of his ceremonial, especially on that of his coronation with the seven crowns, all the most distinguished clergy of Rome did not scruple to officiate.

These days, the 1st and 15th of August, beheld Rienzi at the height of his power and splendour. Roman tradition hallowed, and still hallows, the 1st of August as the birthday of the empire: on that day Octavius took Alexandria, and ended the civil war. It became a Christian, it is still a popular, festival.† On the vigil of that day set forth a procession to the Lateran Church—the Church of Constantine the Great. It was headed by the wife of Rienzi, her mother, with 500 ladies, escorted by 200 horsemen. Then came Rienzi with his iron staff, as a sceptre; by his side the Pope's Vicar. The naked sword glittered and the banner of the city waved over his head. The ambassadors of twenty-six cities were present; those of Perugia and Corneto stripped off their splendid upper garments and threw them to the mob. That night Rienzi passed in the church, in the holy preparations for his knight-hood. The porphyry font or vessel in which Con-

* Written to the Archbishop of
Prague.

† It is still called *Felicitissime Feru-*

gusto. Murator. *Ant. Ital. diss.* ix.
tom. v. 12. Niebuhr in *Roms Be-*
schrreibung, iii. 2, 285.

stantine, in one legend was baptised, in another cleansed from the leprosy, was his bath. In the morning proclamation was made in the name of Nicolas, the Severe and Merciful, the Deliverer of the City, the Zealot for the freedom of Italy, the Friend of the World, the August Tribune. It asserted the ancient indefeasible title of Rome as the head of the world and the foundation of the Christian faith, to universal sovereignty; the liberty of all the cities of Italy, which were admitted to the rights of Roman citizenship. Through this power, and the gift of the Holy Ghost, Rome had the sole prerogative of the election of the Emperor. It summoned all Prelates, Emperors elect or Kings, Dukes, Princes, and Nobles, who presumed to contest that right, to appear in Rome at the ensuing Pentecost. It summoned specially the high Princes, Louis Duke of Bavaria and Charles King of Bohemia, the Dukes of Austria and Saxony, the Elector Palatine, the Margrave of Brandenburg, the Archbishops of Mentz, Cologne, Trèves. Though the proclamation seemed to save the honour of the Pope and the Cardinals, the Pope's Vicar attempted to interpose; his voice was drowned in the blare of the trumpets and the shouts of the multitude. In the evening there was a splendid banquet in the Lateran Palace. Tournaments and dances delighted the people. The horse of the famous statue of Marcus Aurelius poured wine from his nostrils. The cities presented sumptuous gifts of horses, mules, gold, silver, precious stones.

The pride of Rienzi was not yet at its full. Fourteen days after, on the Feast of the Assumption of the Virgin, there was another ceremony in the Church of Santa Maria Maggiore. Seven distinguished ecclesiastics or nobles placed seven crowns on the head

Aug. 15.
Coronation of
Rienzi.

of the Tribune, of oak, ivy, myrtle, laurel, olive, silver, gold. Of these the laurel crown had the emblems of religion, justice, peace, humility. Together the seven crowns symbolised the seven gifts of the Holy Ghost. The Tribune spoke, and among his words were these: "As Christ in his thirty-third year, having overthrown the tyrants of Hell, went up crowned into Heaven, so God willed that in the same year of my life,^u I, having conquered the tyrants of the city without a blow, and alone given liberty to the people, should be promoted to the laurel crown of the Tribune." This was the day of his highest magnificence. Never, he confesses in his humiliation, was he environed with so much pomp or elated by so much pride. It was now, after he had made the profane comparison between himself and the Lord, that was uttered the awful prediction of his downfall.^a In the midst of the wild and joyous exultation of the people, one of his most zealous supporters, Fra Gulielmo, in high repute for sanctity, stood aloof in a corner of the church, and wept bitterly. A domestic chaplain of Rienzi inquired the cause of his sorrow. "Now," replied the servant of God, "is thy master cast down from Heaven. Never saw I man so proud! By the aid of the Holy Ghost he has driven the tyrants from the city without drawing a sword; the cities and the sovereigns of Italy have acknowledged his power. Why is he so arrogant and ungrateful against the Most High? Why does he seek earthly and transitory rewards for his labours, and in wanton speech liken himself to the Creator? Tell thy

^u This is at variance with the story of his imperial birth. Henry of Luxemburg was in Rome in May and June, 1312. In Aug. 1347, Rienzi would

have been in his 34th or 35th year.

^a See the letter to the Archbishop of Prague in Papencordt.

master that he can atone for this only by streams of penitential tears." In the evening the chaplain communicated this solemn rebuke to the Tribune: it appalled him for a time, but was soon forgotten in the tumult and hurry of business.

Power had intoxicated Rienzi; but the majestic edifice which he had built was based on a quicksand. In the people this passion of Roman
people. virtue was too violent to last; they were accustomed to paroxysmal bursts of liberty. It would indeed have been a social and religious miracle if the Romans, after centuries of misrule, degradation, slavery, superstition, had suddenly appeared worthy of freedom; or able to maintain and wisely and moderately to enjoy the blessings of a just and equal civilisation. They had lived too long in the malaria of servitude. Of the old vigorous plebeian Roman, they had nothing but the turbulence; the frugality, the fortitude, the discipline, the love of order, and respect for law, are virtues of slow growth. They had been depressed too long, too low. In victims of the profligacy and tyranny of the nobles, submission to such outrages, however reluctant, however cast off in an access of indignation, is no school of high and enduring dignity of morals, that only safeguard of sound republican institutions. The number, wealth, licence of the Roman clergy were even more fatally corruptive. Still, as for centuries, the Romans were a fierce, fickle populace. Nor was Rienzi himself, though his morals were blameless, though he incurred no charge of avarice or rapacity, a model of the sterner republican virtues. He wanted simplicity, solidity, self-command. His ostentation, in some respects politic, became puerile. His processions, of which himself was still the centre, at first excited, at length pulled on the popular feeling. His luxury—for

his table became sumptuous, his dress, his habits splendid—was costly, burthensome to the people, as well as offensive and invidious; the advancement of his family, the rock on which demagogues constantly split, unwise. Even his religion, the indispensable, dominant influence in such times, was showy and theatrical; it wanted that depth and fervour which spreads by contagion, hurries away, and binds to blind obedience its unthunking partisans. Fanaticism brooks no rivals in the human heart. From the first the Papal Court had watched the proceedings of Rienzi with sullen jealousy. There was cold reserve in their approbation, or rather in the suspension of their condemnation: an evident determination not to commit themselves. Rienzi was in the same letter the humble servant, the imperious dictator to the Pope. As his power increased, their suspicions darkened; the influence of his enemies at Avignon became more formidable. And when the courtiers of the papal chamber, the clergy, especially the French clergy, the Cardinals, almost all French, who preferred the easy and luxurious life at Avignon to a disturbed and dangerous residence at Rome (perhaps with a severe republican censorship over their morals); when all these heard it not obscurely intimated that the Tribune would refuse obedience to any Pope who would not fix his seat in Rome, the intrigues became more active, the Pope and his representatives more openly adverse to the new order of things. Petrarch speaks of the poison of deep hatred which had infected the souls of the courtiers; they looked with the blackest jealousy on the popularity and fame of Rome and Italy.¹ The Cardinal Talleyrand Perigord was furious at the interposition of

¹ Petrarch, *Epist. sine titulo*.

Rienzi in the affairs of Naples. The Nobles of Rome had powerful relatives at Avignon. The Cardinal Colonna brought dangerous charges against Rienzi, not less dangerous because untrue, of heresy,^k even of unlawful and magical arts.

Power had intoxicated Rienzi, but it had not inspired him with the daring recklessness which often accompanies that intoxication, and is almost Nobles in
Rome. necessary to the permanence of power. In the height of his pride he began to betray pusillanimity, or worse. He could condescend to treachery to bring his enemies within his grasp, but hesitated to crush them when beneath his feet. Twice again the Tribune triumphed over the Nobles, by means not to be expected from Rienzi, once by perfidy, once by force of arms. The Nobles, Colonnas and Orsinis, had returned to Rome. They seemed to have sunk from the tyrants into the legitimate aristocracy in rank of the new republic. They had taken the oath to the Constitution, the old Stephen and the young John Colonna, Rinaldo and Giordano Orsini. At the Tribune's command the armorial bearings had vanished from the haughty portals of Colonnas, Orsinis, Savellis.^m No one was to be called Lord but the Pope. They were loaded with praise, with praise bordering on adulation, by the Tribune, not with praise only, with favour. A Colonna and an Orsini were entrusted with, and accepted, the command of the forces raised to subdue the two tyrants, who held out in the Campagna, John de Vico, the lord of Viterbo, in the strong castle of Respampano, and

^k Rienzi's constant appeal to the Holy Ghost would sound peculiarly akin to the prophetic visions of the Fraticelli.

^m All this he commanded, "e fa fatto." Compare Du Cerceau, *Vie de Rienzi*, p. 93.

Gaetano Cercano, lord of Fondi. Nicolas Orsini, Captain of the Castle of St. Angelo, with Giordano Orsini, commanded against John de Vico.

On a sudden (it was a month after the last August festivity), Rome heard that all these nobles had been arrested, and were in the prisons of the Tribune. Rienzi has told the history of the event. "Having entertained some suspicion" (he might perhaps entertain suspicion on just grounds, but he deigns not to state them) "of designs among the nobles against myself and against the people; it pleased God that they fell into my hands." It was an act of the basest treachery! He invited them to a banquet.

Sept. 14. They came, the old Stephen Colonna, Peter Agapito Colonna, lord of Genazzano (once senator), John Colonna, who had commanded the troops against the Count of Fondi; John of the Mountain, Rinaldo of Marino, Count Berthold, and his sons, the Captain of the Castle of St. Angelo, all Orsinis. Luca Savelli, the young Stephen Colonna, Giordano Marini alone lay hid or escaped. The Tribune's suspicions were confirmed. Thus writes Rienzi: "I adopted an innocent artifice to reconcile them not only with myself but with God; I procured them the inestimable blessing of making a devout confession." The Confessor, ignorant of the Tribune's merciful designs, prepared them for death. It happened that just at that moment the bell was tolling for the assembly of the people in the Capitol. The Nobles, supposing it

* This letter was translated with tolerable accuracy, by Du Cerceau, from Heusemius (in Chapeville, Hist. Episcop. Leodens.). It was addressed to an Orsini, canon of Liege. Gibbon, who had not seen the original, observes on it, that it displays in genuine colours the mixture of the knave and the madman. It was obviously meant to be communicated to the Pope.

the death-knell for their execution, confessed with the profoundest penitence and sorrow.

In the assembly of the people, Rienzi suddenly veered round: not only did he pardon, he propitiated the people towards the Nobles; he heaped praise upon them; he restored their honours and offices of trust. He made them swear another oath of fidelity to the Holy Church, to the people, and to Sept. 17. himself; to maintain against all foes the Good Estate. They took the Blessed Sacrament together.

Rienzi must have strangely deluded himself, if he conceived that he could impose upon Rome, upon the Pope, and upon the Cardinals by this assertion of religious solicitude for the captive nobles; still more if he could bind them to fidelity by this ostentatious show of mercy. Contemptuous pardon is often the most galling and inexpressible insult. His show of magnanimity could not cancel his treachery. He obtained no credit for sparing his enemies, either from his enemies themselves or from the world. The Nobles remembered only that he had steeped them to the lips in humiliation, and brooded on vengeance. Both ascribed his abstaining from blood to cowardice. The times speak in Petrarch. The gentle and high-souled poet betrays his unfeigned astonishment at the weakness of Rienzi; that when his enemies were under his feet, he not merely spared their lives (that clemency might have done), but left such public paricides the power to become again dangerous foes of the state.*

The poet was no bad seer. In two months the Colonnas, the Orsinis were in arms. From their fast-

* Petrarch's letter, quoted p. lxxix. of Papenbrocht's *Urkunde*.

nesses in Palestrina and Marino they were threatening the city. The character of Rienzi rose not with the danger. He had no military skill; he had not even the courage of a soldier. Nothing less than extraordinary accident, and the senseless imprudence of his adversaries, gave him a victory as surprising to himself as to others; and his mind, which had been pitifully depressed by adversity, was altogether overthrown by unexpected, undeserved success. The young and beautiful John Colonna had striven to force his way into the gates; he fell; the father, at the sight of his maimed and mangled body, checked the attack in despair. All was panic; four Colonnas perished in the battle or the flight; eighteen others of the noblest names, Orsinis, Frangipanis, Savellis, the lords of Civita Vecchia, Viterbo, Toscanella.* Rienzi tarnished his fame by insulting the remains of the dead. His sprinkling his son Lorenzo with the water tainted by the blood of his enemies, and saluting him as Knight of Victory, was an outburst of pride and vengeance which shocked his most ardent admirers.[†]

Rienzi might seem by this victory, however obtained, by the death of the Colonnas, the captivity of his other foes, secure at the height of his greatness. Not a month has passed; he is a lonely exile. Everything seems suddenly, unaccountably, desperately to break down beneath him; the bubble of his glory bursts, and becomes thin air.

Rienzi must speak again. He had dark and inward

* See the list of the slain and prisoners in Rienzi's account.—Papebrocht, note, p. 182.

† Read in Hoeusemius (p. 506), or in

Du Cerceau (p. 222), his letter of triumph: "This is the day that the Lord hath made."

presentiments of his approaching fall. The prophecy at his coronation recurred in all its terrors to his mind, for the same Fra Gulielmo had foretold the death of the Colonnas by his hand and by the judgement of God. The latter prophecy the Tribune had communicated to many persons; and when the four chiefs of that house fell under the walls of Rome, the people believed in a Divine revelation. His enemies asserted that Rienzi kept, in the cross of his sceptre, an unclean spirit who foretold future events. (This had been already denounced to the Pope.) "When I had obtained the victory," he proceeds, "and in the opinion of men my power might seem fixed on the most solid foundation, my greatness of mind sank away, and a sudden timidity came over me so frequently, that I awoke at night, and cried out that the armed enemy was breaking into my palace; and although what I say may seem ludicrous, the night-bird, called the owl, took the place of the dove on the pinnacle of the palace, and, though constantly scared away by my domestics, as constantly flew back, and for twelve nights kept me without sleep by its lamentable hootings. And thus he whom the fury of the Roman nobles and the array of his armed foes could not alarm, lay shuddering at visions and the screams of night-birds. Weakened by want of sleep, and these perpetual terrors, I was no longer fit to bear arms or give audience to the people."*

To this prostration of mind Rienzi attributes his hasty desperate abandonment of his power. But there were other causes. The Pope had at length declared against him in the strongest terms. During the last period of his power Rienzi had given many grounds

* From the same letter.

for suspicion that he intended to assume the empire. He had asserted the choice of the Emperor to be in the Roman people; though in his condescension he had offered a share in this great privilege to the cities of Italy. The bathing in the porphyry vessel of Constantine was not forgotten. When the Papal Legate, Bertrand de Deux, had appeared in Rome to condemn his proceedings and to depose him from his power, Rienzi returned from his camp near Marino (he was then engaged against John de Vico), and confronted the Legate, clad in the Dalmatica, the imperial mantle worn at the coronation of the Emperors, which he had taken from the sacristy of St. Peter's. The Legate, appalled at the demeanour of the Tribune and the martial music which clanged around him, could not utter a word. Rienzi turned his back contemptuously, and returned to his camp. Upon this, in a letter to his "beloved sons," the Roman people, the Pope exhaled all his wrath against the Tribune.* He was denounced under all those terrific appellations, perpetually thundered out by the Popes against their enemies. He was "a Belshazzar, the wild ass in Job, a Lucifer, a fore-runner of Antichrist, a man of sin, a son of perdition, a son of the Devil, full of fraud and falsehood, and like the Beast in the Revelations, over whose head was written 'Blasphemy.'" He had insulted the Holy Catholic Church by declaring that the Church and State of Rome were one, and fallen into other errors against the Catholic faith, and incurred the suspicion of heresy and schism.

After his triumph over the Colonnas, Rienzi's pride had become even more offensive, and his magnificence

The Pope's
declaration.

still more insulted the poverty and necessities of the people. He was obliged to impose taxes; the gabelle on salt was raised. He had neglected to pursue his advantage against the Nobles: they still held many of the strongholds in the neighbourhood, and cut off the supplies of corn and other provisions from the city. The few Barons of his party were rapidly estranged; the people were no longer under the magic of his spell; his hall of audience was vacant; the allied cities began to waver in their fidelity. Rienzi began too late to assume moderation. He endeavoured again to associate the Pope's Vicar, the Bishop of Orvieto, in his rule. He softened his splendid appellations, and retained only the modest title, the "August Tribune!" He fell to "Knight and Stadtholder of the Pope." Amid an assembly of clergy and of the people, after the solemn chanting of psalms, and the hymn, "Thine, O Lord, is the kingdom, and the power, and the glory," he suspended before the altar of the Virgin his silver crown, his iron sceptre and orb of justice, with the rest of the insignia of his Tribunate.

All was in vain. Pepin, Palatine of Altamura and Count of Minorbino, marched into the city, Count Pepin
in Rome. and occupied one of the palaces of the Colonnas with an armed force. The bell of the Capitol rang unheeded to summon the adherents of Rienzi. He felt that his hour was come. He might, he avers, easily have resisted the sedition excited by Count Pepin, but he was determined to shed no more blood. He called an assembly of the Romans, solemnly abdicated his power, and departed, notwithstanding, he says, the reluctance and lamentations of the people. After his secession, it may well be believed that, under the reinstated tyranny of the Nobles, his government

was remembered with regret; but when the robber chief, whom he had summoned before his tribunal, first entered Rome and fortified the Colonna Palace, Rienzi's tocsin had sounded in vain; the people flocked not to his banner, and now all was silence, desertion. Even with the handful of troops which he might have collected, a man of bravery and vigour might perhaps have suppressed the invasion; but all his energy was gone: he who had protested so often that he would lay down his life for the liberties of the people did not show the courage of a child.¹ His enemies could hardly believe their easy victory: for three days the Nobles without the city did not venture to approach the walls; Rienzi remained undisturbed within the castle of St. Angelo. He made one effort to work on the people by his old arts. He had an angel painted on the walls of the Magdalen Church, with the arms of Rome, and a cross surmounted with a dove, and (in allusion, no doubt, to the well-known passage in the Psalms) trampling on an asp, a basilisk, a lion, and a dragon. Mischievous boys smeared the picture with mud. *Flight of Rienzi.* Dec. 14 or 15. Rienzi, in the disguise of a monk, saw it in this state, ordered a lamp to be kept burning before it for a year (as if to intimate his triumphant return at that time), and then fled from Rome.

His retreat was in the wild Apennines which border on the kingdom of Naples. There the austere of the austere Franciscans dwelt in their solitary cells in the deep ravines and on the mountain sides, the Spiritualists who adored the memory of Coelestine V.,² despised the worldly lives of their less recluse

¹ So writes the old Roman biographer. | vision. All that in any way might

² Rienzi at one time declared that | tend to the glory of Rome found
Boniface VIII. appeared to him in a | welcome in his mind.

brethren, and brooded over the unfulfilled prophecies of the Abbot Joachim, John Peter Oliva, the Briton Merlin, all which foreshadowed the coming kingdom, the final revelation of the Holy Ghost. The proud vain Tribune exchanged his pomp and luxury for the habit of a tertiary of the Order (his marriage prohibited any higher rank); he wore the single coarse gown and cord; his life was a perpetual fast, broken only by the hard fare of a mendicant. He was enraptured with this holy society, in which were barons, Nobles, even some of the hostile house of Colonna. "O life which anticipates immortality! O angels' life, which the fiends of Satan alone could disturb! and yet these poor in spirit are persecuted by the Pope and the Inquisition!"

For two years and a half Rienzi couched unknown, as he asserts, among this holy brotherhood. They were dismal, disastrous years. Earthquakes ^{1348, 1349.} ^{The Plague.} shook the cities of Christendom. Pope Clement, in terror of the plague which desolated Europe, shut himself up in his palace at Avignon, and burned large fires to keep out the terrible enemy. The enemy respected the Pope, but his subjects around perished in awful numbers. It is said that three-fourths of the population in Avignon died: in Narbonne, thirty thousand; of twelve Consuls of Montpellier, ten fell victims. It was called the Black Plague; it struck grown-up men and women rather than youths. After it had abated, the women seemed to become wonderfully prolific, so as to produce a new race of mankind. As usual, causes beyond the ordinary ones were sought and found. The wells had been poisoned, of course by unbelievers. The Jews were everywhere massacred. Pope Clement displayed a better title to the Divine protection than his

precautions of seclusion and his fires. He used his utmost power to arrest the popular fury against these unhappy victims.* The Flagellants swarmed again through all the cities, scourging their naked bodies, and tracing their way by their gore. Better that fanaticism, however wild, should attempt to propitiate God by its own blood, rather than by that of others; by self-torture rather than murder!†

The wild access of religious terror and prostration gave place, when the year of Jubilee began, to as wild a tumult of religious exultation. Rome again swarmed with thousands on thousands of worshippers. Rienzi had meditated, but shrank in fear from, a pilgrimage to the Holy Land. It is said that he stole into Rome in disguise: the Tribune was lost in the multitude of adoring strangers.

Suddenly after his return, in his retreat on Monte Magello, he was accosted by the hermit, Fra Angelo, a man acknowledged by all the brethren as a prophet. Angelo pronounced his name, which Rienzi believed had been a profound secret. The prophet had been led to Rienzi's dwelling by Divine revelation:—"Rienzi had laboured enough for himself; he must now labour for the good of mankind. The universal reformation, foreseen by holy men, at the urgent prayer of the Virgin, was at hand: God had sent earthquakes and great mortality on earth to chastise the

* This plague has a singular relation with the history of letters. Among its victims was Petrarch's Laura. It has been usually called the Plague of Florence, because described in the Decameron of Boccaccio; just as the common pestilence of Europe is said to be that of Athens, because related by Thucydides. Singular privilege of genius, to concentrate all the interest and terror of such a wide-wasting calamity on one spot!

† See Continuator of Nangis; and the very curious account, especially of the Flagellants, in Albertus Argentinensis, p. 150.

sins of men. Such had been his predeterminate will before the coming of the blessed Francis. The prayers of St. Francis and St. Dominic, who had preached in the spirit of Enoch and Elias, had averted the doom." But "since there is now not one that doeth good, and the very Elect (the Dominicans and Franciscans) have cast off their primitive virtues, God has prepared, is preparing, vengeance. After this the Church will resume her primal holiness. There will be peace not only among Christians, but among Christians and Saracens. The age of the Holy Ghost is at hand. For this end a holy man, chosen of God, is to be made known to mankind by Divine revelation, who, with the Elect Emperor, shall reform the world, and strip the pastors of the Church of all temporal and fleeting superfluities."

Rienzi, from doubt, fear, perhaps some lingering touch, as he says, of his old arrogance, hesitated to undertake the mission to the Emperor Charles IV. imposed upon him by the prophet. Fra Angelo unfolded, with much greater distinctness, the secrets of futurity: he showed him prophecies of Spiritual men—of Joachim, of Oliva, of Merlin—already fulfilled. Rienzi deemed that it would be contumacy to God to resist the words of the prophet.*

In the month of August appeared in the city of Prague a man in a strange dress. He stopped at the house of a Florentine apothecary, and asked to be presented to my Lord Charles the Emperor Elect: he had something to communicate to his honour and advantage.

Aug. 1,
possibly in
July.
Rienzi in
Prague.

Rienzi, admitted to the presence of the King of the

* All this is from Rienzi's own letters in Papencordt, with the Ukunda.

Romans, announced his mission from the prophet, Fra Angelo. He had been commanded to deliver this message:—"Know ye, Sire and Emperor, that Brother Angelo has sent me to say to you, that up to this time the Father has reigned in this world, and God his Son. The power has now passed from him, and is given to the Holy Ghost, who shall reign for the time to come." The Emperor, hearing that he thus separated and set apart the Father and Son from the Holy Ghost, said, "Art thou the man that I suppose you to be?"^a He answered, "Whom do ye suppose me to be?" The Emperor said, "I suppose that you are the Tribune of Rome." Thus the Emperor conjectured, having heard of the heresies of the Tribune, and he answered, "Of a truth I am he that was Tribune, and have been driven from Rome." The Emperor sat in mute astonishment, while Rienzi exhorted him to the peaceful and bloodless conquest of Italy:—"In this great work none could be of so much service as himself. He alone could overcome the rival Orsinis and Colonnas." He offered his son as a hostage: "he was prepared to sacrifice his Isaac, his only begotten, for the welfare of the people." He demanded only the Imperial sanction. "Every one who presumes to take the rule in Rome when the Empire is not vacant, without leave of the Emperor, is an adulterer."

He was admitted to a second interview. The Archbishop of Trèves, two other Bishops, the second inter-
view. ambassadors of the King of Scotland, many other nobles and doctors, sat around King Charles. Rienzi was commanded to repeat his message. He

^a I have moulded together the account in the historian Pollastore, with Rienzi's own as it appears in the Urkunde. There is no essential discrepancy.

spoke on some points more at length:—"Another messenger had been sent to the Pope at Avignon: him the Pope would burn. The people of Avignon would rise and slay the Pope; then would be chosen an Italian Pope, a poor Pope, who would restore the Papacy to Rome. He would crown the Emperor with the crown of gold, King of Sicily, Calabria, Apulia; himself, Rienzi, King of Rome and of all Italy. The Pope would build a temple in Rome to the Holy Ghost, more splendid than that of Solomon. Men would come out of Egypt and the East to worship there. The triune reign, the peaceful reign, of the Emperor, of Rienzi, and of the Pope, would be an earthly image of that of the Trinity."

The Archbishops and Bishops departed in amazement and horror. Rienzi was committed, as having uttered language bordering at least upon Rienzi in custody heresy, to safe custody under the care of the Archbishop of Prague. He was commanded to put his words in writing. From his prison he wrote a long elaborate address. He now revealed the secret of his own Imperial birth; he protested that he was actuated by no fantastic or delusive impulse; he was compelled by God to approach the Imperial presence; he had no ambition; he scorned (would that he had ever done so!) the vain glory of the world; he despised riches; he had no wish but in poverty to establish justice, to deliver the people from the spoilers and tyrants of Italy. "But arms I love, arms I seek and will seek; for without arms there is no justice." "Who knows," he proceeds, "whether God, of his divine providence, did not intend me as the precursor of the Imperial authority, as the Baptist was of Christ?" For this reason (he intimates) he may have been regenerated in the font of Constantine, and

this baptism may have been designed to wash away the stains which adhered to the Imperial power. He exhorts the Emperor to arise and gird on his sword, a sword which it became not the Supreme Pontiff to assume. He concludes by earnestly entreating his Imperial Majesty not rashly to repudiate his humble assistance; above all, not to delay his occupation of the city of Rome till his adversaries had got possession of the salt-tax and other profits of the Jubilee, which amounted to one hundred millions of florins, a sum strictly belonging to the Imperial treasury, and sufficient to defray the expenses of an expedition to Italy.

Charles of Bohemia was no Otho, no Frederick, no Henry of Luxemburg; his answer was by no means encouraging to the magnificent schemes of the Tribune. It was a grave homily upon lowliness and charity. It repudiated altogether the design of overthrowing the Papal power, and protested against the doctrine of a new effusion of the Holy Ghost. As to the story of Rienzi's imperial descent, he leaves that to God, and reminds the Tribune that we are all the children of Adam, and all return to dust. Finally, he urges him to dismiss his fantastic views and earthly ambition; no longer to be stiff-necked and stony-hearted to God, but with a humble and contrite spirit to put on the helmet of salvation and the shield of faith.

Baffled in his attempts to work on the personal ambition of the Emperor, the pertinacious Archbishop of Prague. Rienzi had recourse to his two most influential counsellors, John of Neumark, afterwards Chancellor, and Ernest of Parbubitz, Archbishop of Prague. John of Neumark professed a love of letters, and Rienzi addressed to him a brief epistle on which he lavished all

his flowers of rhetoric. John of Neumark repaid him in the same coin. The Archbishop was a prelate of distinction and learning, disposed to high ecclesiastical views, well read in the canon law, and not likely to be favourable to the frantic predictions, or to the adventurous schemes of Rienzi. Yet to him Rienzi fearlessly addressed a long "libel," in which he repeated all his charges against the Pope of abandoning his spiritual duties, leaving his sheep to be devoured by wolves, and of dividing, rending, severing the Church, the very body of Christ, by scandals and schisms. The Pope violated every precept of Christian charity; Rienzi alone maintained no dreamy or insane doctrine, but the pure, true, sound apostolic and evangelic faith. It was the Pope who abandoned Italy to her tyrants, or rather armed those tyrants with his power. Rienzi contrasts his own peaceful, orderly, and just administration with the wild anarchy thus not merely unsuppressed, but encouraged by the Pope; he asserts his own more powerful protection of the Church, his enforcement of rigid morals. "And for these works of love the Pastor calls me a schismatic, a heretic, a diseased sheep, a blasphemer of the Church, a man of sacrilege, a deceiver, who deals with unclean spirits kept in the Cross of the Lord, an adulterator of the holy body of Christ, a rebel and a persecutor of the Church; but 'whom the Lord loveth he chasteneth;' as naked I entered into power, so naked I went out of power, the people resisting and lamenting my departure."^b

^b A little further on he gives this piece of history: "We read in the Chronicles that Julius, the first Cæsar, angry at the loss of some battle, was so mad as to raise his sword against his own life; but Octavianus, his grandson, the first Augustus, violently wrested the sword from his hand, and saved Cæsar from his own frantic hand. Cæsar, returning to his senses, made-

He reiterates his splendid offer to the Emperor for the subjugation of Italy. "If on the day of the Elevation of the Holy Cross I ascend up into Italy, unimpeded by the Emperor or by you, before Whitsuntide next ensuing I will surrender all Italy in peaceable allegiance to the Emperor." For the accomplishment of this he offered hostages, whose hands were to be cut off if his scheme was not fulfilled in the prescribed time; and if he failed, he promised and vowed to return to prison to be dealt with as the Emperor might decide. He repeats that his mission, announced by the prophetic hermit, is to prepare the way for the peaceful entrance of the Emperor, to bind the tyrants in chains, and the nobles in links of iron. "So that Cæsar, advancing without bloodshed, not with the din of arms and *German fury*, but with psalteries and sweet-sounding cymbals, may arrive at the Feast of the Holy Ghost, and occupy his Jerusalem, a more peaceful and securer Solomon. For I wish this Cæsar, not secretly or as an adulterer, like his ancestor of old,^a to enter the chamber of my mother, the city of Rome, but gladly and publicly, like a bridegroom, not to be introduced into my mother's chamber by a single attendant, in disguise and through guarded barriers; not as through the ancestor of Stephen Colonna, by whom he was betrayed and abandoned, but by the whole exulting people. Finally, that the bridegroom shall not find his bride and my mother an humble hostess and handmaid, but a free woman and a queen; and the home of my mother shall not be a tavern but a church."^d

dictately adopted Octavianus as his son, whom the Roman people afterwards appointed his successor in the empire. Thus, when I have wrested the frantic sword from his hand, the Supreme Pontiff will call me his faithful son."

^a Henry of Luxemburg. What does this strange confusion of allusion mean?

^d There are several more letters to the Archbishop in the same rhapsodical tone and spirit.

The reply of the Archbishop was short and dry. He could not but wonder at his correspondent's protestations of humility, so little in accordance with the magnificent titles which he had assumed as Tribune; or with his assertion that he was under the special guidance of the Holy Ghost. "By what authority did Rienzi assert for the Roman people the right of electing the Emperor?" He was amazed that Rienzi, instead of the authentic prophecies of the Holy Scriptures, should consult the wild and unauthorised prophets Methodius and Cyril. The Archbishop ends with the words of Gamaliel, that "if the Tribune's schemes are of God they will succeed, however men may oppose them."

Was, then, Rienzi in earnest in his behalf in all these mad apocalyptic visions? Was he an honest fanatic? Does his own claim, during all his early career, to the special favour of the Holy Ghost intimate an earlier connexion, or only a casual sympathy and accordance with the Franciscan Spiritualists? A letter to Fra Angelo is that of a passionate believer, prepared, he asserts, to lay down his imperilled life, entreating the prayers of the brethren, warning them that they may be exposed to persecution.* Or was it that in the obstinacy of his hopes, the fertility of his resources, the versatility of his ambition, Rienzi deliberately threw himself on this wild religious enthusiasm and on Ghibellinism, to achieve that which he had failed to accomplish in his nobler way? Would he desperately, rather than abandon

* There is a strange passage about his wife (his Luna), which might tend to the suspicion that she had been corrupted by some of his enemies among the Roman clergy. Yet both his wife and his daughters he hopes at the end will become Sisters of St. Clare (the female Franciscans). There are some tender parental provisions about his son, whom he consigns to the care of his Spiritual brethren.—Apud Pincourt, p. 74.

the liberty, the supremacy of Rome, enlist in his aid German and Imperial interests, Imperial ambition? The third and last act of his tragic life, which must await the Pontificate of Innocent VI., may almost warrant this view, if, in truth, the motives of men, especially of such men as Rienzi, are not usually mingled, clashing, seemingly irreconcilable impulses from contradictory and successive passions, opinions, and aims.

During all Rienzi's residence at Prague, the Pope had been in constant communication with the Emperor, and demanded the surrender of this son of Belial, to be dealt with as a suspected heretic and a rebel against the Holy See. The Emperor at length complied with his request. Rienzi's entrance into Prague has been described in the words of an old historian; his entrance into Avignon is thus portrayed by Petrarch. The poet's whole letter is a singular mixture of his old admiration, and even affection for Rienzi, with bitter disappointment at the failure of his splendid poetic hopes, and not without some wounded vanity and more timidity at having associated his own name with one, who, however formerly glorious, had sunk to a condition so contemptible. One of Rienzi's first acts on his arrival at Avignon was to inquire if his old friend and admirer was in the city. "Perhaps," writes Petrarch, "he supposed that I could be of service to him; he knew not how totally this was out of my power; perhaps it was only a feeling of our former friendship." "There came lately to this court—I should not say came, but was brought as a prisoner—Nicolas Laurentius, the once formidable Tribune of Rome, who, when he might have died in the Capitol with so much glory, endured imprisonment, first by a Bohemian (the Emperor), afterwards by a Limousin (Pope Clement), so as to make himself, as well as the

time and Republic of Rome, a laughing-stock. It is perhaps more generally known than I should wish, how much my pen was employed in lauding and exhorting this man. I loved his virtue, I praised his design; I congratulated Italy: I looked forward to the dominion of the beloved city and the peace of the world. . . . Some of my epistles are extant, of which I am not altogether ashamed, for I had no gift of prophecy, and I could that he had not pretended to the gift of prophecy; but at the time I wrote, that which he was doing and appeared about to do was not only worthy of my praise, but that of all mankind. Are these letters, then, to be cancelled for one thing alone, because he chose to live basely rather than die with honour? But there is no use in discussing impossibilities; I could not destroy them if I would; they are published, they are no longer in my power. But to my story. Humble and despicable that man entered the court, who, throughout the world, had made the wicked tremble, and filled the good with joyful hope and expectation; he who was attended, it is said, by the whole Roman people and the chief men of the cities of Italy, now appeared between two guards, and with all the populace crowding and eager to see the face of him of whose name they had heard so much."

A commission of three ecclesiastics was appointed to examine what punishment should be inflicted on Rienzi. That he deserved the utmost punishment Petrarch declares, "not for his heresy, but for having abandoned his enterprise when he had conducted it with so much success; for having betrayed the cause of liberty by not crushing the enemies of liberty." Yet, after all, everything in this extraordinary man's life seems destined to be strange and unexpected. Rienzi could scarcely look for any sentence but death, death at the stake, as an

audacious heretic, or perpetual imprisonment. He was at first closely and ignominiously guarded in a dungeon. He had few friends, many enemies at Avignon. He was even denied the aid of an advocate. Yet the trial by the three Cardinals was not pursued with activity. Perhaps Clement's approaching death inclined him to indifference, if not to mercy; then his decease
 1352, and the election of a new Pope distracted public attention. The charge of heresy seems to have quietly dropped. Petrarch began to dare to feel interest in his fate; he even ventured to write to Rome to urge the intercession of the people in his behalf. Rome was silent; but Avignon seemed suddenly moved in his favour. Rumour spread abroad that Rienzi was a great poet; and the whole Papal court, the whole city, at this first dawn of letters, seemed to hold a poet as a sacred, almost supernatural being. "It would be a sin to put to death a man skilled in that wonderful art." Rienzi was condemned to imprisonment; but imprisonment neither too ignominious nor painful. A chain, indeed, around his leg was riveted to the wall of his dungeon. But his meals were from the remnants of the Pope's table distributed to the poor. He had his Bible and his Livy, perhaps yet unexhausted visions of future distinction, which strangely enough came to pass.

END OF VOL. VII.